Attitudes to school of poor attenders.

Thesis

UNRESTRICTED

ATTITUDES TO SCHOOL OF POOR ATTENDERS

Submitted for the degree of
MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY

by

JAMES B. CRAIK B.A.(Hons), H.N.C.(Mech. Eng.), H.N.C.(Build.),
Dip.Ed.H.

PSYCHOLOGY OF EDUCATION
OPEN UNIVERSITY

DECEMBER 1984

Date of submission: Feb 85
Date of Award: 26.11.85

ABSTRACT

Previous research has shown that secondary schools frequently differ from one another in the way they deal with their pupils' "instrumental" and "expressive" needs and thus may exert an influence on the attitudes of their pupils which may have some effect on their attendance, independent of the effects of adverse social attitudes and family circumstances.

The present study has pursued this area of inquiry but has changed the focus from general instrumental and expressive needs to four specific factors (namely, job activity preferences; job satisfactions; perceptions of the teacher and peer behaviour in school and spare time leisure activities) and the responses to them by 46 poor attenders and a matched group of good attenders.

These poor attenders (20 boys and 26 girls) and their controls who were drawn from stage S2 and stage S3 of a "bottom-tier" comprehensive school, participated in the first year of the study (data collected in May 1978). During the second year of the study (data collected in May 1979) seven poor attenders were "lost".

The measuring instruments used were (a) The Crowley Occupational Interests Blank, (b) Finlayson's School Climate Index and (c) a local activities questionnaire.

With only minor exceptions, the responses of the two groups were similar and consistent. Although, when selected, the matched/

matched pairs were clearly differentiated with respect to their attendance records, they were not so in terms of the factors examined. There was a trend for the good attenders to be absent more and become more like the poor attenders as they grew older.

Attempts were made to identify where the school could use knowledge of poor attenders' job interests and satisfactions to help influence attitudes and reduce absenteeism.

There was no evidence that the bad attenders felt the teachers to be less concerned or more punitive.

The relationships between teachers and pupils were seen to be of prime importance.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My thanks are due to Dr. S. Mitchell for her encouragement and guidance; Dr. K. Richardson for his support and Mrs.E. Fergusson who typed most of the manuscript.

CONTENTS

i)/

CONTENTS (continued)

CONTENTS (continued)

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF TABLES (continued)

LIST OF TABLES (continued)

LIST OF TABLES (continued)

LIST OF FIGURES/DIAGRAMS

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION: THE NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

The "problem" of irregular school attendance is not new. Indeed it can be seen as a concommitant of the institution of compulsory education. Prior to the Education (Scotland) [1] Acts of 1872 to 1883, it was a matter of parental decision whether or not a child attended school. Attendance might vary with other demands on the child's time so that as one Inspector reported in 1857, in some schools "there was practically a distinct set of children in summer and winter" (Scotland, 1969).

The provision of compulsory education after 1872 for all children up to the age of 13 (14 in Scotland after 1883) by no means produced an instant change by ensuring that all children attended school on a regular basis. There has never been full attendance in British schools (Lang, 1975; Rankin, 1961). In Scotland, Inspectors' reports in 1883 showed that in rural areas such as Skye and Nairn attendance never rose above 60 per cent and even in urban areas such as parts of Glasgow, attendance might fall to 70 per cent (Roxburgh 1971).

These figures exclude many pupils (from ten year olds upwards) prematurely withdrawn under the provision in the Act that

---

(1) (Note that the English and 'Scotch' Education Acts of 1872, though not precisely similar, contain clauses very much alike (Graham, 1889)).

allowed exemptions on certain conditions. In Glasgow, for example, 3000 twelve year olds gained exemption from attendance in 1890, and even ten years later, the following situation pertained:

Table 1.

The percentage of pupils leaving school at various ages in 1900

Age	Number at school	Percentage left school
10-11	12685	
11-12	12000	
12-13	9614	23%
13-14	5668	53%

(Roxburgh, 1971, p.184)

Similarly, in England the Education Acts of 1870, 1880 and even the 1900 Act (which raised the leaving age to 14) allowed for numerous exemptions. These exemptions were said to be "so freely taken advantage of that the effective leaving age ..... (was nearer) 13 than to 14". (Hadow Report, 1926). Even as late as the beginning of the first World War, 28 per cent of the pupils left at 13, while a further 13 per cent left between 13 and 14. (Hadow Report, 1926). (Exemptions were finally abolished at the end of the first World War, but poor school attendance still continued.)

Over the next 30/40 years the attendance situation

improved, partly as a result of better social welfare provisions and partly as a result of changing social attitudes. For example, the Hadow Report (1926) spoke of the "increased public interest in the education of children between 11 and 15" and demonstrated this by showing the rising average length of secondary school life.

Table 2

The rising average length of secondary school life between 1907-1924

Date	Boys	Girls
1907 - 1910	2 years 7 months	2 years 7 months
1921 - 1922	3 years 2 months	3 years 4 months
1923 - 1924	3 years 7 months	3 years 8 months

(Amended from the Hadow Report 1926, p.83)

A growing consciousness, on the part of the public, of the value of secondary education was evident. The Robbins Report (1963) referred to "the great upsurge in the demand for secondary education " that had occurred since 1870 and illustrated this by the following table:

Table 3

The percentage of young people of various ages receiving full time education.

Great Britain 1870 - 1962

	1870	1902	1938	1962
10 year olds	40	100	100	100
14 year olds	2	9	38	100
17 year olds	1	2	4	15
19 year olds	1	1	2	7

(p11)

More children were getting longer education but nevertheless not all pupils were taking full advantage of the improved facilities available. Some pupils were still seen to be irregular attenders, but since many of the absences were said to be due to illness, little "official" attention was paid (Bransby 1951).

In recent years, (i.e. since the late 1960's) however, the "problem" of irregular school attendance has again been given considerable publicity, and has generated research (and speculation) about its extent, causes and possible results (in educational and social terms) (Tyerman 1958, 1968, 1972, 1974; Mitchell 1972; Mitchell and Shepherd 1967, 1980; Fogelman and Richardson 1974; Reynolds 1976; Reynolds et al 1980; Galloway 1976, 1981, 1982; Pack Report 1977; Carroll 1977; Rutter et al 1979; Hersov and Berg 1980; Reid 1981, 1982, 1983, 1984; Reid and Kendall 1982; Brown 1982, 1983).

Such concern has, in general, related to "avoidable" absences as it is in this sphere that the increase is seen as occurring - absence due to ill health having fallen in the long run (i.e. over the last 80 years) and remaining relatively constant in the short term (i.e. over the last 20-25 years). Thus much of the public discussion has related to the ultimate in voluntary absenteeism i.e. "truancy".

(i) Problems of classifying absence

A by-law of the Elementary Education Acts allowed for three "reasonable" excuses for not attending school:

(a) "That the child is under efficient instruction in some other manner.

(b) That the child has been prevented from attending school by sickness or an unavoidable cause.

(c) That there is no public elementary school open which the child can attend within 2 miles".

(Graham, 1889, p212)

Of these, the first two would be just as acceptable today. The courts at that time, however, held that there could be other reasonable excuses within the meaning of the by-law besides the three specified reasons. For example, in the case of the London School Board, (May 27th 1884), it was held that poverty was a reasonable excuse for non-attendance (Graham 1889). It is doubtful if this would be regarded today as an "unavoidable cause," because facilities have been set up to counteract such effects (supplementary benefits, social work help).

The majority of present day absences may be due to "unavoidable causes" such as pupil illness, parental illness, parents on holiday (Tyerman, 1968; N.A.C.E.W.O. 1974). However it is not illness and other "good" causes that create concern but the unneccessary or voluntary causes of absence such as truancy (which is the extreme form), want of parental control, feckless parents, girls kept at home for company or to help "mind the baby" and so on (Roxburgh 1971).

The difficulties involved in separating out the absences due to "good" causes from the absences due to truancy are plain. While absences due to truancy exclude illness, all that is usually available as "evidence" in many articles is the total absence figures, (apart from special surveys such as that made

by the Pack Committee (1977). Since the majority of these may be due to "unavoidable" causes it may be that only a small proportion of absences should be equated with truancy (Billington 1978).

Plowden (1967) suggests that only four per cent of primary children's absences could be classified as instances of truancy, while Tyerman (1968) estimates that five per cent of secondary pupils' absences are due to truancy. The National Association of Chief Education Welfare Officers (N.A.C.E.W.O. 1974) reporting ten years later (when the actual incidence of truancy might well have changed) suggest that as much as 40 per cent of all absences could be regarded as "condoned truancy". However, such an apparently enormous rise is queried by Galloway (1974), (using the same definition of truancy as N.A.C.E.W.O. (1974) namely, "absence without parental knowledge or permission" who suggests that for the secondary pupils of Sheffield, only 15 per cent of all unjustified absences could be considered as truancy. Thus even the use of the same definition may provide a differing or confusing result. However, it may be N.A.C.E.W.O.'s definition of "condoned truancy" which is misleading since this appears to cover that proportion of absence which they regard as being avoidable (20-40 per cent) It should also be noted that they did not justify their acceptance of the top of the range figure.

Part of such disagreement may be due to the difficulty in determining what absences are permissable and what are not, for this may well depend on the individual point of view. Consider/

those pupils who are kept at home to help with the housekeeping, babysitting, or just for company. Such absences are clearly "justified" in the parents' eyes. Since the reasons are not acceptable to the Education Authorities however, we may get the additional problem of parentally falsified absence notes suggesting "illness" was to blame. The subjective problems involved in classifying absence as "justified" or "unjustified" are obvious.

It is because of all these difficulties that the present study is mainly concerned with the wider topic of poor school attendance. Why does it matter?

(ii) Extent of avoidable non-attendance

In recent years, the quickening debate on non-attendance at school is due, in part, to the belief that it may be on the increase and may now be a "major social problem" (Brown 1983).

In Scotland, for example, non-attendance at school is a cause of real concern for Children's Panel members (Martin et al 1981) as it is the second most common category of referral to the Reporter (Murray 1982) (see Table p9). It should be noted, however, that over a year this concerns only two or three children per thousand of the normal school population (Murray 1982). However, Murray expressed the opinion that the problem may be greater than these numbers would indicate:

> "If all those children who are seen by their schools as presenting serious truancy problems were to be referred to the hearings system, reporters and panel members alike would probably be overwhelmed." (p155)

A similar forceful statement was made by Galloway (1981) who, when discussing the formal procedures available to ensure regular attendance at Sheffield said that:

"If the L.E.A. took action against all pupils who missed 50 per cent of their schooling, it would find that both of its own officers and the courts were totally overwhelmed." (p16)

A more "numeric" indication of the "extent of the problem" in Scotland, may be seen in Table 4 and Figure 1 (next page), especially when it is noted that these figures may be the extreme cases.

Both Table 4 and Figure 1 show the rise that took place in referrals from 1972 to 1977, and then the subsequent decline to 1982. Murray (1982) suggests that part of the reason for the increase was the raising of the school leaving age to sixteen and the reasons for the decline were the fall in the number of children in the relevant age group, more action on the part of the School Councils (see p17) and a realisation by some that Panels were relatively ineffective in solving truancy problems.

Martin et al (1981), when discussing the reduction in the number of children entering the hearings system on a basis of truancy, provides evidence that this was matched by a similar decline in the number of children being proceeded against in the adult courts between 1972 and 1979. Thus, they argue, the decline in the rate of referral to the hearings system did not mean that more frequent use was made of the sheriff courts in juvenile cases.

Table 4

The number of children in Scotland referred to the Reporters for non-attendance at school from 1972-1982 with these referrals as a percentage of the total referrals for all grounds.

YEAR	NUMBER OF CHILDREN REFERRED (N)	PERCENTAGE OF ALL GROUNDS (%)
1972	1469	6
1973	2053	6.8
1974	2345	7.2
1975	1960	6.5
1976	2870	9.7
1977	3387	11.8
1978	3010	11.3
1979	2514	9.7
1980	2803	9.8
1981	2920	9.6
1982	2721	9.0

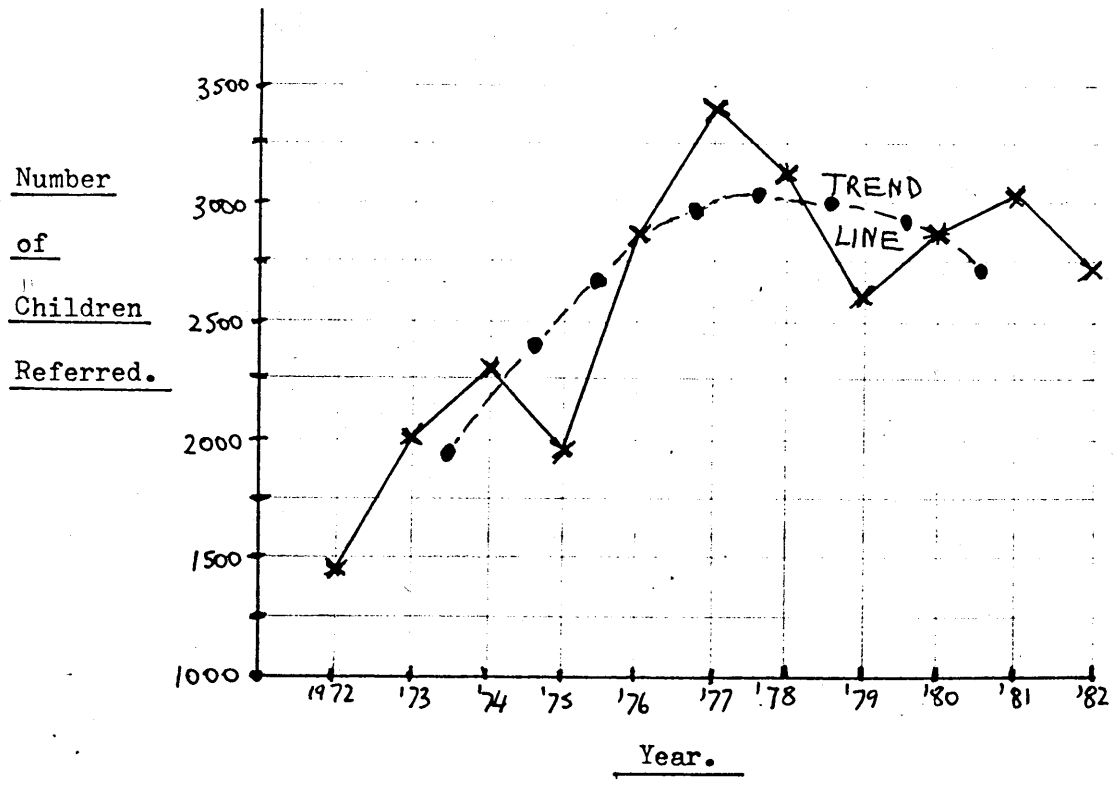
Source: Amended from table 3A "Percentage of Alleged Grounds by Type, 1972-81," Children's Hearings Statistics 1981, Social Work Services Group Statistical Bulletin (p.10).

(Note: The table includes 1982 information drawn from the Social Work Services Group Statistical Bulletin 1984 p.7. Some of the tables from previous years were not given and only selected years were shown).

The table shows that, for Scotland, between 1972-82 referrals for non-attendance at school accounted for approximately 1 in 10 of all referrals to the Children's Panel and involved about 3000 children (and their parents) annually.

The rising trend (up to mid 1978/79) of referrals may be seen more clearly in the graph of Table 4 figures. (which appear to indicate that the peak may now have passed - see trend lines).

Figure 1. Graph of number of children referred by year.



Official reaction to the "increased concern" and the current speculation and beliefs about the problem of truancy in particular and poor school attendance in general, included the setting up of an S.E.D. Committee in Scotland (The Pack Committee) in 1974, a D.E.S. National Survey of school attendance in 1974 and an H.M. Inspectorate survey of 18 English schools in 1978.

In order to comply with its terms of reference, the Pack Committee not only carefully evaluated existing research evidence, but also commissioned its own survey designed to produce an estimate of the extent of the problem. (2) This survey (based on a sample of 55 schools and covering a six week period of sixty half days) showed that 15 per cent of the pupils had some unexplained absences (if only for one half day) and that 22 per cent of all absences (3.12 per cent of total pupil time lost) was said by the schools to be due to truancy.

It is difficult to compare the S.E.D. Committee's results with those of the Department of Education and Science's (1974) survey since the latter covered only one day but was carried out in all the middle and secondary schools in England and Wales. The survey reported that nearly 10 per cent of all pupils were absent that day and that 22.7 per cent of those absent had no legitimate reason for their absence (in the opinion of the school).

---

(2)(Note that the Pack Report (1977) did not investigate empirically the reasons for truancy, the characteristics of truants or measures actually taken to deal with the problem).

The Inspectorate report, while unable to quantify the incidence of unexplained absence from school in the schools visited, acknowledged that it was an increasing problem in the later years.

The reports quoted, appear to confirm the speculation that there is a considerable problem of unnecessary pupil absence from school (variously described as "truancy", "unauthorised absence", "absenteeism", "persistent absenteeism").

(iii) Reasons for concern

(a) Effects on children

The possible adverse effects of poor attendance on the absentees is one of the focal concerns underlying many of the reports on truancy (particularly the official ones).

Thus, for example, absentees have been found to experience feelings of alienation from school (Reid 1981) and to have poorer personal relationships with their parents and with teachers (Reid 1983).

The Pack Report (1977) cited "Deficiency in reading ability" as one of the factors which contributed to a "child's sense of inadequacy" which in turn (and without empirical verification) was said to be associated with truancy.

There are also suggestions that truants are more at risk of becoming involved in juvenile delinquency (May 1975; The Magistrates Association 1975/76; W.Watson Stewart - no date, Hersov and Berg 1980).

Carroll (1977) tested these hypotheses on a rather small sample of 20 poor attenders and 20 good attenders drawn from the first year pupils of a mixed comprehensive school and studied over a period of four years. He found that despite missing nearly a year of secondary schooling, the poor attenders appeared not to have suffered educationally. His analysis did not reveal any significant differences between the poor and good attenders' scores in reading comprehension, arithmetic or verbal reasoning nor in signs of maladjustment. However, it must be noted that his sample only consisted of a small number of pupils drawn from a single year group in a particular comprehensive school and cannot therefore be used as a basis for wider generalisation.

In contradiction, Tyerman (1958) after studying 137 truants who had been prosecuted for irregular attendance, and also comparing an additional 40 truants with a control group of non-truants, found that the truants did less well scholastically than good attenders. However, he failed to emphasise that this may have been the case before their absences as primary results and ratings indicated that the truants were "inferior intellectually and academically" to most of the age group yet most did not become truants until they were in secondary school.

Similarly, Fogelman (1978) using National Child Development Study data, related the school attendance of the cohort at the ages of seven and fifteen to their mathematics and reading scores and school behaviour

at sixteen and found poor attenders had relatively low attainment scores. However, he did consider that it was continued absence that was associated with low attainment. It should also be noted that he was looking at different attendance rates and not truancy so that those with long absences would include, for example, those absent because of ill health.

In all these studies, however, we are faced with what is basically a "chicken and egg" problem. Do children go absent because they are having difficulties with school work or do they have difficulties with their work because of their absences?

Reid's (1983d?) study shows that ten per cent of his absentees gave "curriculum and examinations" as their initial reason for missing school while half as much again gave the same reason for continuing to miss school. He also suggests that the majority of the absentees blamed their schools rather than "social or psychological" factors for their lack of attendance. There is, however, the problem that these explanations were based on what the pupils remembered of their actions (which had taken place quite some time before). Nevertheless, it is true that "unpopular" lessons may be partly to blame for some poor attendance and that many absentees say they enjoy "nothing" about school (Reid 1983).

We also have some evidence that poor attendance may affect employment opportunities on leaving school, i.e. the poor attender may experience difficulties in finding and keeping his/her first job on leaving school (Mitchell 1972). However, we cannot say what kind of causal relationship exists since we do not know whether the absentees' difficulties stem from their lack of qualifications, their lack of intellectual sparkle or their lack of good school reports.

Robins and Ratcliff (Hersov and Berg 1980), when looking at the long term effects of truancy among a group of black schoolboys in St. Louis, found that high school truancy was a good predictor of low earnings, "alcohol problems, marital problems, criminality and job problems", and was associated with psychological treatment, anxiety, depression, hallucinations and delusions. In their discussion of the possible effects that truancy has on occupational success, they queried whether:

> "..... the stigmatization of the truant as a dropout might have been more important in determining his later outcome than any effect that non-attendance at school might have had on his fund of knowledge or his competence." (p73)

(b) Effects on schools The administrative burden placed on teachers to monitor attendance and "police" their classes for absentees (see Appendix 4) clearly involves withdrawal of time and effort from other classroom duties (e.g. teaching). The classroom teacher's role becomes more overtly custodial and guidance staff are obliged to process absentees at the expense of career and other types of guidance. The measures suggested by the Pack Report (1977) to ensure an "efficient system of attendance control" (i.e. attendance checks throughout the school day in addition to the usual registration) when adopted means increasing school policing of truants

A supplementary problem for schools as far as actual teaching is concerned, is the additional help required by these pupils who have fallen behind in their work because of their absences.

The main concern for schools, however, about poor attendance, may not be the work involved in such a system, no matter how tedious or time consuming, or the extra teaching time involved, or even that poor attendance may be the main reason for communication between/

between school and home, perhaps leading to school-pupil/parent tension, but simply to try and improve the attendance of such pupils. After all, if pupils fail to attend school regularly, how can schools make an impact on their education?

(c) Effects on community resources Poor school attendance can be seen to be "costly" not only in terms of the pupil's own possible lost opportunities or the effects on schools already discussed, but also because of the demands which preventative activity makes in terms of resources such as time and efforts, by community agencies such as the courts (prosecution of parents may take up court time), children's panels, school councils and social work departments (all of which were set up for more general purposes).

(i) Children's Panels Martin et al (1981) describe the Scottish system of juvenile justice as:

> "..... bifurcated. The hearings normally deal with children under 16, together with children aged 16 but not yet 18 who are already subject to a supervision requirement. A child may however still be dealt with in the sheriff court or in the High Court, rather than referred to the reporter to the children's panel (if the offence is considered serious)." (p36)

The system of children's hearings brought into operation on 15 April 1971 under Part III of the Social Work (Scotland) Act 1968, replaced the former juvenile courts. They were established with the purposes of deciding whether a child was in need of compulsory measures of care, which include protection, control, guidance and treatment. This decision is based on the acceptance (by the child and his parents) or the establishment (by the sheriff) of any of nine ground

for referral. These grounds range from the child being beyond the control of his parents to the child committing an offence. Since only one of these grounds refer to irregular school attendance it is clear that truancy control was not seen to be the panels main purpose (Social Work Services Group 1981).

We can see from Table 4, however, that dealing with truants does involve a fair amount of work for the panels and social workers who have to prepare reports and/or to supervise the child. However, not all the cases shown in the table will actually reach a Hearing. The Social Work Services Group Statistical Bulletin (1979) states that:-

> "When the Reporter receives information which suggests that a child may have to be brought before a childrens hearing, he makes such initial investigation as he thinks necessary ..... If it appears to him that the child is in need of compulsory measures of care, he brings the case before a childrens hearing. If ... not.... he may refer the case to the social work department with a view to their making voluntary arrangements for the advice, guidance and assistance of the child and his family." (p6)

Referral to the social work department is, however, no guarantee of improved school attendance, for, as the Pack Report (1977) comments:

> ".....social workers,..... are in many instances either not able or not prepared to give priority to ensuring that truants attend school, even when this is a condition of a supervision order." (p30)

(ii) School Councils.

The Local Government (Scotland) Act of 1973 required that

bodies (school councils) be formed:

> "..... to discharge, ... such of the functions of management and supervision of educational establishments..... as the (education) authority shall determine." (Section 125)

Macbeth et al (1980) suggests that the school councils have five main purposes (though they are not the same for all authorities) i.e. providing a means of communication between themselves and the education committee, carrying out specified administrative functions, encouraging consultation on policy related to schools, encouraging liaison between schools, parents and community and making parents accountable to them for the school attendance of their children. It is clear that a substantial amount of court time as well as school council time is involved in the implementation of the latter objective for he indicates that in 1976/77 alone, there were 2799 decisions (by only 51 per cent of the school councils dealing with truancy matters) to prosecute parents of non-attending children (See Table 5) on next page.

Table 5

Decisions made by an opportunity sample of 135 school councils (out of 267 dealing with truancy matters) in 1976/77 in regard to truancy cases.

	Number of Decisions
Prosecution	2,799
Attendance order placed	938
Formal warning	3,363
Referred to Reporter to Childrens Panel	1,296
Referred to MedicalOfficer	256
Referred to Social Work Dept.	77
Referred to Child Guidance	74
No action but case kept open	1,530
Case closed	2,172
Other	216
TOTAL	12,721

Source: Amended from table in Appendix 6, p146, "Scottish School Councils: Policy-Making, Participation or Irrelevance ? Macbeth et al (1980).

Note: (These 12,721 decisions were in regard to 11,936 cases of truancy

The implications of the overall picture given above, in terms of resources, is illustrated by a local report by a Burgh School Council's attendance sub-committee (Macleod 1980). This showed that in the years 1976-79 they had dealt with 150 pupils (73 girls and 77 boys) for poor school attendance and indicated the amount of human resources involved in such work, for example:

(a) Committee members had spent 325 afternoons dealing with pupils and their parents, and

(b) more than 30 per cent of the time available to the Clerk to the School Council was spent on attendance matters. (It must be noted that the time the Clerk spent visiting the home of poor attenders at the request of the schools and liaising with the schools, meant that in many instances of poor attendance, reference to the School Council was unnecessary).

(c) 30 per cent of the cases heard were referred to the Children's Panel. A third of the parents were eventually prosecuted in the Sheriff Court.

Since the above discussion refers solely to Scotland, it is perhaps appropriate also to quote an example from England, where a different system operates.

Galloway et al (1981) present details from Sheffield of the various "administrative" and "legal proceedings" available to the local education social work service (E.S.W.) in that area, when deciding which course of action to take in cases of poor school attendance. In addition to informal action, where the E.S.W. can opt to work with the family to get a return to school,

the E.S.W. have three formal procedures i.e.

(a) to invite parents to a meeting of the Education Committee School Attendance Section (S.A.S.). These meetings have two main purposes:

> "(i) a final attempt by the L.E.A. to prevent the necessity for legal action in connection with poor school attendance, by bringing home to parents the seriousness of their position,
> (ii) (to act as) an advisory committee for the education social work service ...." (p11)

(b) to prosecute the parents; and

(c) to begin care proceedings in the juvenile court.

During the two years 1976-78 the parents of 472 Sheffield children were invited to an S.A.S. meeting, the parents of 157 children appeared before a magistrates court and 126 children (some being referred directly from the S.A.S.) appeared before a juvenile court.

It was stressed that even being the subject of one or all of these procedures did not mean that a pupil's subsequent school attendance greatly improved.

A general point has to be made. The extent to which these community agencies devote their energies to dealing with truancy may be to the detriment of their other work in two main ways. First, with so much time being spent on truancy there can be little time left for other work. School councils, for example, may have up to twenty two other functions to perform in addition to attendance/

attendance and truancy (Macbeth et al 1980). Second, it is possible that the impression given of School Councils as mainly "policing" agencies may be positively harmful to some of their other functions, such as the building of better relations between schools and parents.

In view of the many reasons for concern detailed above, it is not surprising therefore that much time and effort have been devoted to unearthing the "causes" of unexplained absence. This will be the subject of the next chapter.

CHAPTER 2

FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH TRUANCY/POOR ATTENDANCE

Many reasons for truancy have been put forward by those writing on the subject. These were summarised by the Pack Report (1977) as:-

> "..... those arising from general social attitudes of the public, those arising from characteristics of the child's family background and those arising from the characteristics of the school attended." (p25)

It is necessary to investigate these points in depth.

(1) SOCIAL ATTITUDES

The evidence presented to the Pack Committee (1977) identified three main influences through which society affects schools. These were said to be the attitudes of the parents (parental control was thought to have declined over the years), the values derived from the media (pervasive influences to violence, prurience, often inimical to education) and the influences of the "permissive society" (tolerance of standards of behaviour not previously considered acceptable).

No empirical evidence for these beliefs has been educed, they are merely a reflection of the opinions of those organisations and individuals contributing written and oral "evidence" to the Committee. Though we cannot know which of the organisations and individuals listed in the Pack Report as having given "evidence", made these assumptions and on what basis, it is possible to consider some factors i.e. - see overleaf

(a) Changes in social attitudes

The "adverse changes" in the public's social attitudes towards education mentioned in the Pack Report may be the expression of a belief that there is a gap developing between the expectations and values of schools and those of "outside groups". Society itself, in a process of rapid change, seems divided on many moral and social issues (Munn Report 1977). Thus, the demands made on schools may not only include the schools' traditional "educational" purpose but also include dealing with the changing attitudes of the public (Educational Priority Vol. 1,1972; Pack Report 1977).

A problem that has much to do with the social change in attitudes towards education and one that may have scarcely surfaced when the Pack Committee first met, is the possibility of a contraction in educational provision. While this may be one of the main educational consequences of falling rolls in schools, the present Government seems to have decided that any money "saved" by having smaller numbers in school, will be taken from the education service (Simon and Taylor 1981). While this need not necessarily be the case, Taylor argues that it reflects a "lack of conviction" by an influential section of society about the likely value to the economy and to the individual of making "extra" resources available. It was hopes of "economic advantage" to the nation as well as benefits for the individual that encouraged spending on education in the past and many believe that such hopes have not been fulfilled. Sections of the public, he believes, now emphasise the shortcomings of schools and proclaim how limited is their influence on individual and social/

social development. Many, he says, have lost confidence about the ability of schools to sustain even the cultural needs of all against the media (which in many instances cater for the lowest possible taste).

Such thoughts, such doubts, are not really new, of course, as can be clearly seen in the following extract from Educational Priority Vol. 1:-

> "..... it is now ..... plain that the school cannot accomplish important social reforms .... schools are hampered in achieving even their more traditional and strictly "educational" purposes .... in societies changing rapidly ..... in the aspirations of their population ..... ."
>
> (Halsey 1972)

Both Taylor's and Halsey's comments say much about people's attitudes towards education and perhaps how they view the performance of the schools. If adults see a lowered value in the educational process, would their children absorb this, and could it affect their attitudes to school and hence their school attendance ?

(b) Unemployment and changing attitudes / aspirations

The worsening employment prospects for school leavers who have little or no qualifications and the increase in the length of time in which they are without work (Holland Report 1977; Sinfield 1981) is assuming increasing importance since the Pack Committee was formed. Today's school leavers are faced by a very different world from that of a decade ago. Between the years 1980/83 for example, the number of unemployed school leavers trebled (Webb 1983).

The Pack Report (1977) was a pre-depression document and the effects of almost certain unemployment on pupils' attitudes to school was therefore not examined. What other evidence is there for believing that unemployment may have had an effect upon pupils' attitudes to school ?

Using National Child Development Study data collected in 1974 (i.e. well before the substantial increase in the unemployment of young people), Fogelman (1979) suggested that school attainment was a main factor in all young people's job and education plans. This may no longer be the case, however, for many middle and low ability school leavers now appear to question the relevance of what they are receiving in school (New Society 18.2.82) This is clearly shown in Raby and Walford's (1981) study of young people from various ethnic groups in the West Midlands which suggested that:-

> "They ..... (were) aware that the examinations and formal curriculum of the school had little to do with whether or not they would get the sort of job that they were aiming for ....." (p33)

We cannot treat this assumption lightly, for there is evidence to suggest that some employers when selecting young applicants may pay scant attention to their expected examination results or their teachers' reports of attitudes to school and authority or attendance records, etc. (Fleming and Lavercombe 1980).

It is perhaps when schools cannot realistically offer a large proportion of their pupils something valuable to them (e.g. help with their future job plans) as a reward for being

a "model pupil" that anti-school attitudes may develop.

Consider the view of a young person drawing on personal experience:-

> "Many people around me genuinely feel qualifications will not bring better job prospects, whilst others use high unemployment as a scapegoat to justify laziness; either way, this pessimism of young people, which is part of the eighties, is working against the school."
>
> (New Society 9.2.84.)

Such feelings, if representative, may have an obvious bad effect on school attendance. Only a quarter of the truants in Brown's (1982) study, for example, felt that there was a connection between success at school and success in later life (and his fieldwork was done before youth unemployment reached its peak !) The majority of parents too, feel that there is no such connection and therefore it is not important for their children to do well at school (Brown 1982; Raven 1980).

The comments in this section say much about the effects that youth unemployment especially has had on changing the attitudes of many to education. In a time of rapidly disappearing work, many pupils/parents seem to view much of what schools do as irrelevant.

The evidence gathered from the last two sections appears to confirm the Pack Committee's view that some recent changes in society may be inimical to education and thus to good school attendance.

(2) Family Circumstances

While it is generally agreed that the family is important in moulding the behaviour and attitudes of the child (Vernon 1971) and influencing the way the child responds to school (Banks 1976) the actual mechanisms by which the relationship operates are not so clearly delineated.

Many studies, however, have suggested that the social environment of the family may have some effect on these variables (Swift 1966). Goldethorpe et al (1968) suggest that distinctions in social background, often measured in terms of father's occupation, could mean a different style of life perhaps leading to a different view of the value of education:

> "..... in modern society the members of the industrial labour force form a highly differentiated collectivity - in terms, for example, of the positions and roles they occupy in their non-working lives, in their subcultural characteristics, and in the pattern of their life histories and objectives for the future." (p184)

A possible relationship between social background and school attainment has been commented upon by a number of empirical studies, including Swift (1966), and Fraser (1959) and also by a number of reports including the Crowther Report (1959) and the Plowden Report (1967).

There is also some evidence to suggest that school absence may be linked to the occupational status of the father. Commenting on the school attendance of the 16000 children forming the National Child Development Study, Davie (1972) said that at the age of eleven:

"About 87 per cent of the middle class children were "good attenders" but the figure dropped to 79 per cent for children of skilled or semi-skilled manual workers. Only 71 per cent of the children from unskilled working class families were good attenders at this age."

(The Guardian 12.9.72.)

A later study by Fogelman (1978) on the same children confirmed that the relationship between social class and school attendance was:-

"..... in the expected direction, with a clear progression from those in professional families to those with father in unskilled manual occupations."

(p151)

Mitchell (1972) too, found that poor attenders were more likely to come from families where the father was an unskilled or semi-skilled manual worker.

Turning now from general absence to truancy in particular, Fogelman and Richardson (Turner 1974) also using National Child Development Study data, showed the relationship thus: (note the manual/non-manual dichotomy)

TABLE 6. SOCIAL CLASS DISTRIBUTION OF 'TRUANTS'

	Social Class				
	1 & 11	111 NM	111M	1V	V
Truants (%)	0.32	0.54	1.1	1.8	3.1
N =	2861	1117	5201	2000	708

(Taken from Turner 1974) (p38)

However, it must be noted that they used the very subjective measure of teacher assessment as their index of truancy among the children, and it may be that this is related to social background (i.e. that a child from a "nice" home might be perceived as less likely to be truanting - if absent - than one from a more problematic background).

It is possible, of course, that the relationship between social background and school attainment / school absence /truancy may be the product of intervening factors such as parental attitudes etc. While the Crowther Report (1959) showed that educational attainments correlated more with social background than with measured ability, the Plowden Report (1967) went further and attempted to differentiate home circumstances from parental attitude and from the effect of school and concluded:

> "..... more of the variation in the children's school achievement is specifically accounted for by the variation in parental attitudes than either the variation in the material circumstances of parents or by the variation in schools."
>
> (Appendix 4. Vol. 11 p184)

Thus, no matter what the social situation, parental encouragement has an important bearing on school motivation and performance (Swift 1966) and parental interest becomes more and more important in relation to pupils' school attainment as they grow older. (Douglas 1964; Plowden Report 1967; Argyle and Robinson 1962).

The Pack Report (1977) suggested that parents who were unaware of their child's absence from school, uncooperative parents who did not value the education their child was receiving or parents overburdened by their own problems might all be

particularly at risk of having children who truanted. Similarly, The National Association of Schoolmasters in evidence (not substantiated empirically) to N.A.C.E.W.O. (1974) said that lack of parental ability to relate to school or authority, were some of the causes of absence from school. Catherine Lindsay (1968) too, stressed that absence was associated with family circumstances. In her survey of the role of the school in a Glasgow community, based on two large comprehensive schools, she found that poor attendance was associated with situations of psychological stress in the home, while the worst level of attendance was associated with "economic stringency".

"Psycho-social" factors and "material" factors and their possible association with poor attendance will now be considered separately, but it must be noted that they may well be inter-related. Single parent famililies, for example, are also usually low income households.

(a) Psycho-social Factors

The important influence of marital relationships on the stability of children which the Pack Report (1977 p44) mentions, is stressed in a number of inquiries which have found that many truants come from single parent families or broken homes (Mullen 1950; Stott 1966; Elliott 1975; Blythman 1977; H.M.Inspectorate 1978; Reid 1982a; Reid and Kendall 1982 and Hersov 1960a). Thus, while Reid and Kendall (1982) suggest that absentees suffer more home disruption than good attenders because of their "parents unsettled marital status", Hersov (1966a) concludes, more specifically, that truants:

> ".....o often experienced maternal absence in infancy and paternal absence in later childhood." (p135)

However, as some of these studies drew their truants from Child Guidance clinics and children who had appeared in court, it is clear that referral could have been brought about by these same factors.

The effects of an unstable family on a child's school attendance are stressed by the Health Visitors' Association in evidence to N.A.C.E.W.O. (1974), by Lindsay (1968) who mentions such distressing home circumstances as attempted suicide, eviction, separation and delinquency and by Tyerman (1958), who from his comparative study of truants and "normals" concludes that:

> "Few of the truants had a happy and secure home influence. Most of them came from broken homes or homes where there was open disharmony. In general, the parents set poor examples and were unsatisfactory characters. They neglected their children, were ineffective in their supervision and took little interest in their welfare. The view of many writers that the truant is born in an inferior environment seemed to be confirmed." (p22)

Tyerman's study showed that poor home conditions (described in terms such as unclean homes, overcrowding, etc.) and a lack of satisfaction there (assessed in terms of rejection by mothers etc.) allied to failure at school (both in terms of work and relations with others) were associated with truancy. Of course, the reliance placed on two school attendance officers' assessment of "truancy" and "home conditions and personalities", must be noted for this information may neither be complete nor entirely reliable. Although this was supplemented by information from pupils' medical and school record cards, experience teaches that those can be notoriously out of date. Moreover, it must not be overlooked/

that the majority of these children were "court truants" while all of Hersov's (1960a) truants were Child Guidance patients. Thus it may well be that these children were not just "truants" but "truants with other problems".

(b) Material Factors

When discussing the association between poor attendance and "economic stringency", Lindsay (1968) argued that:

> "Inadequacy of clothing, difficulties even in producing P.E. kit, dinner money and bus fares could all contribute to increased absence." (p88)

This observation relates to the attendance records of a restricted sample of 83 boys and the interviewer's assessment of "need" is based on whether or not they were receiving free meals or clothing. Similar views are reflected in the report of the Pack Committee (1977) and the Health Visitors' Association (N.A.C.E.W.O. 1974) who both emphasise the effects on school attendance of the size of the family, inadequate income and hence inadequate housing and clothing, and the irregular employment of the father. Fogelman and Richardson (Turner 1974) reported that while only 10.7 per cent of the parents of non-truants in their study had contacted such welfare agencies as "welfare associations, children's societies, school health service, guidance clinic, etc.", over 44 per cent of the parents of truants had done so. More recent confirmation of the extent of the involvement of absentees' families with the social services is given by Reid (1982a):

> "..... 42 per cent of the Absentees, their families, or both, had a known involvement with the social services for a wide variety of reasons." (p181)

Such studies, of course, are of individuals, it may also be of/

interest to examine studies of areas.

A comparison made between the housing situation (age and condition of houses) in Glasgow, in the locality of four comprehensive schools having low absenteeism, and that of three comprehensive schools with high absenteeism, showed that in the latter location the housing situation was much worse (I.S.T.D. 1974). However, since housing policy may work to put certain kinds of people in certain areas, it must be noted that housing may reflect or exacerbate existing social problems not cause them. Further evidence on "material factors" is provided by Galloway (1976a,b) who found a close association between "persistent absenteeism" and "social and economic hardship in the school catchment area" as measured by the number of children receiving free school meals; and by Reid (1982 a) who suggested that many absentees come from "deprived and lower socio-economic backgrounds".

The preceding discussion has indicated that some poor attendance and truancy may be related to unfavourable family or environmental circumstances. However, it must be noted that causal inferences stem from the mind of the investigator not from the data itself. For example, as has been suggested already, it is far from easy to establish whether the relationship between poor housing and poor attendance is a direct one or whether it is indirect (i.e. poor housing affects mother who keeps child off school) or whether both are the effects of some other factor(s) (e.g. parental status, parental attitudes, council housing policy etc.).

(3) Factors Associated with Schools

In the work of early writers, such as Tyerman, the main "cause" of truancy was seen as lying in the home - the "properly" socialized, happy child of normal attainment was seen as automatically fitting into any school at which he/she was a pupil. Difficulties arising within schools were seen as having their roots in the child's attributes (personality, attitudes, attainment); the school was seen as presenting a neutral environment - or at least a consistent one for all children.

Tyerman (1958), for example, considered the transfer of a truant from one school to another of the same type as being futile, since that transfer seldom cured the "underlying cause". That, he suggested was the happenings in the home. In saying this, however, it would seem that he based the importance of the home mainly on the theories of character formation that some psycho-analytic writers were postulating at the time (child's relationship with mother, methods of training, the child's need for a good adult model), rather than on his own studies.

Such ideas remained virtually unchallenged for some years. More recent studies, however, have attempted to assemble more empirical evidence about the effects on their pupils. As early as 1957, Sime suggested that different patterns of "discipline" might account for very different incidences of truancy between two Glasgow schools drawing their pupils from very similar families living in the same area. In the main, however, such school based studies have occurred during the last decade (Reid and Kendall 1982); some studies being concerned with "objective" factors (size of school, administration, etc.) while others have considered "the social processes and educational ethos of the school" (Brown 1983).

Tyerman's most recent publications, drawing from other people's research and observations, do show the influence on attendance that a "sense of purpose" in a school exerts on a pupil (1972). Moreover, he now considers that the school itself must be the main source of assistance to the truant (Turner 1974). Regrettably, there is evidence to show that only some schools have managed to develop strategies to encourage better attendance (Jones 1980; Reid 1982d). One of the problems being that:

> "We know far too little about how to create favourable circumstances under which school absentees can return and successfully reintegrate within their institutions." (Reid 1983d?) (p114)

(a) Differences between Schools

There are now a number of recent investigations which have demonstrated possible associations between school characteristics and absence rates. These suggest that:

> "..... there may be identifiable factors within schools that are closely associated with the development of truanting behaviour amongst their pupils." (Murray 1982) (p157)

For example, Reynolds (1976) and his colleagues (Reynolds and Murgatroyd 1977; Reynolds, Jones, St. Leger and Murgatroyd 1980), undertook research in nine Welsh secondary modern schools which were similar in the characteristics of their all-male pupil intake. They found that the schools differed greatly in delinquency rates, educational failure and levels of truancy and suggested that one of the factors contributing to these differences may have been the way in which the teachers treated the pupils.

Kavanagh and Carroll (Carroll 1977) also looking at Welsh pupils, in this case drawn from three comprehensive schools, found that these schools differed significantly in attendance. They claimed/

claimed that this related to the school's organisation and the teachers' attitude towards the pupils and each other. It is noteworty, however, that they also found pupil differences in that the school with the largest proportion of poor attenders had also significantly higher proportions of children with low scores on tests of attainment and general intelligence.

These studies establish that widespread differences in absence rates occur among schools in the same or similar areas and suggest that certain factors within the schools may account for this. These can be examined in more detail under the following headings:

i) Type of school
ii) Size of school
iii) Stage of schooling
iv) Organisation of school
v) Social climate of school

i) Type of School

This small section seeks to establish whether absence rates or truancy have some association with the type of school a pupil attends. There is some evidence to suggest that they do.

If we think first in terms of a comparison of primary school and secondary school (i.e. a "child-centred environment" compared to an "extended curriculum structure of subjects"), it has been suggested that attendance during the first year of secondary school may often be better than in the final year of primary school (Baum 1978). On the other hand, while a contemporary Scottish study (White and Peddie 1978) dealing with the transfer from primary school to comprehensive school found little difference in pupils' attendance/

attendance over these two years, an early study by Sandon (1961) reported a fall in the attendance of the less able girls after their transfer to the grammar school.

If we now think of secondary schools only, we note that an interesting early study (Rankin 1961) found that modern schools had nearly twice the absence rates of grammar schools (which were thought to have few attendance problems (Sandon 1961).

It was the early comprehensive schools that seemed to have the highest levels of reported truancy (Steedman and Fogelman 1980). Although they considered that comprehensive and secondary modern pupils were more likely and grammar school pupils less likely to truant, Steedman and Fogelman also argued that the level of truancy seemed similar across ability ranges. As far as present day comprehensive schools were concerned, they believed that truancy was less related to initial ability, parents' interest or social class and more related to the age or type of comprehensive school.

A difficulty, however, lies in their use of teachers' subjective views, for although the study made clear that comprehensive school teachers were more ready than others to report their pupils as truanting, the pupils self-ratings indicated that secondary modern pupils at least, were as likely to admit to truanting as comprehensive pupils.

It is interesting to see that Reynolds (1984) now describes the secondary modern schools in his study (see p 36) as atypical since they only took the bottom two thirds of the full ability range and stresses the need for further work on school types (among other factors).

Finally, it will be noted that no mention has been made of "special units", even though their establishment was a prime/

prime recommendation of the Pack Committee and that their numbers are increasing (Frude and Gault 1984). It is felt that they are too specialized for a more general discussion on poor attendance.

ii) Size of School

The inquiry carried out by the Pack Committee (1977), (based on a stratified sample), showed that the size of the school was not related to its truancy rate and Galloway's (1976) findings in Sheffield support this. However, the Pack Committee did believe (on what evidence is unclear), that some pupils experienced "transfer difficulties" because of the increased size of the secondary school and the increased number of teachers that taught them.

Rutter and his colleagues' (1979) study of twelve inner London schools, ranging in total size from about 450 to about 2000 pupils, and with varying class sizes, also found no relationship between their "very poor attendance" rate (with "very poor attendance" defined as less than eight attendances out of a possible twenty) and the size of the school. It must be noted, however, that they did not equate poor attendance with truancy. (See Ch. 1 for a discussion on this).

In contrast, Reynolds and Murgatroyd (Carroll 1977) in their study of nine schools in Wales, did find an association between truancy and school size. However, as they themselves point out, the nine schools studied were all small (the largest only having 355 pupils and the smallest having 136 pupils) so this finding must be treated with caution. It must be noted that their largest school was smaller than Rutter's smallest one!

In practice, the stressful effects of large schools on teachers/

teachers (difficult physical conditions, time-tabling problems, increase in number of pupils taking more examinations) may effect teacher response to pupils which in turn may provoke bad behaviour/ poor attendance (Parry-Jones and Gay 1984). (But see v) p 46 for a more detailed discussion on teacher-pupil relationships).

iii) Stage of Schooling

There is some evidence to suggest that unexplained unjustified absence from school may be associated with the age and stage of schooling of the children.

For example, Reid (1983d?) indicates that his findings:

> "..... reinforce the fact that the three critical periods for the onset of school absenteeism are the last two years of primary schooling, and the first and third years of secondary education." (p113)

While Reid points out that his findings should be treated with caution since his study was a small scale one based on atypical pupils, there are other earlier large scale surveys which confirm this general picture.

The one day survey of absence carried out by the Department of Education and Science (1974) showed that unjustified absence increased as the school leaving age approached:

TABLE 7 ABSENCES AS A PERCENTAGE OF ALL PUPILS (ENGLAND AND WALES)

	Unjustified Absences - Boys and Girls				
Age	16	15	14	13	12 and under
Percentage Boys	2.7	4.8	2.8	1.9	1.1
Girls	2.8	4.8	2.9	2.0	1.1

The Table shows the similarity of both boys and girls' overall levels of unjustified absence from school, but it should be noted that the survey also indicates that a greater percentage of girls were absent for legitimate? reasons.

This survey can be criticized on the grounds that it gives a picture of only one day in January, but the H.M.Inspectorate (1978) report too, stresses that most truants were to be found in the lower classes of the third, fourth and fifth years. While giving no actual figures, the Inspectorate report observes that:

> "All the schools reported a recognisable and steady increase in unauthorised absence from the third year onwards." (p9)

A similar Scottish experience of unexplained absences rising sharply with yearly stage is reported in the Pack Committee's (1977) survey:

TABLE 8 DISTRIBUTION OF UNEXPLAINED ABSENCE BY YEARLY STAGE

Year		Percentage of Children with some unexplained absence
S1	Boys	9.4
	Girls	6.8
S2	Boys	12.1
	Girls	12.3
S3	Boys	18.0
	Girls	17.3
S4	Boys	25.6
	Girls	25.0

(p22)

Unlike the English reports, Pack shows that boys and girls/

girls differ in their amounts of absence and that there is a significant association between sex and amount of absence.

Given the above evidence, it is clear that the problem of unexplained/unjustified absences becomes more serious the older the pupils and the more senior the class.

iv) Organisation of School

The opinions presented to the Pack Committee (1977) suggests that many of the school based factors which could cause truancy appear to fall under the heading of organisation and management of the school. They include breakdown in communication and loss of personal contact between pupils and teachers, unclear school policies on particular basic issues, unsuitable curriculum, unsuitable teaching methods, timetabling that failed to take account of the needs of the less able and youngest pupils, the need for a stress free transfer of pupils from primary to secondary, the need for greater involvement of parents, unsatisfactory accommodation, shortage and turnover of teachers and inadequate administrative arrangements in schools for registration and checking attendance and so on.

Pack's description is, of course, an overview and the empirical work of others will now be examined to see how far it is substantiated. Before this, it must be noted that while there may be little direct evidence linking truancy to school organisation, indirect evidence may be drawn from studies linking organisation and attitudes. Of course, care must be taken in applying such evidence to the particular case of truants.

Streaming The work of Barker-Lunn (1970) stongly supports the/

the hypothesis that the organisation of the school itself, plays an important part in the development of children's attitudes to primary school (motivation to do well, attitudes to their class etc.). Her inquiry found that the least favourable attitudes were held by pupils taught in unstreamed schools by teachers who believed in streaming. She also found a tendency for those children in the lower streams of a streamed school to deteriorate in performance and educational motivation. However, she did suggest that the development of children's personal and social attitudes was less affected by the type of school organisation.

Unfortunately, none of the scale items in Barker-Lunn's (1970) study, mentioned the poor attender or truant. Her purpose, of course, was mainly to try to explain school attainment in terms of school organisation rather than describe the type of pupil holding more/least positive attitudes towards school, but others have shown that some of the effects she described could also be linked to poor attendance or truancy.

Mitchell and Shepherd (1980), for example, suggest that lower stream pupils may suffer status deprivation leading to dislike of school and hence absenteeism. Fogelman and Richardson's (Turner 1974) study indicates that the lower the stream the higher the truancy (no causal relationship being established).

Setting The separation of secondary pupils into academic and non-academic groups may also cause a lowering of morale amongst certain of them which may lead to truancy (Reid 1983; Cope and Gray 1978). Cope and Gray conclude:

> "We can legitimately infer that for non-certificate pupils, the perceived irrelevance of much of their school work, their perceived inadequacy of the provision and their sense of being treated as relatively unimportant ... must at very least legitimise their truancy..., may have indeed triggered it off..." (p25)

Curriculum/Staff Organisation/Other Factors The most comprehensive study is probably that of Rutter and his colleagues in London. They examined the way that certain features of school organisation (which they described as "school processes") in twelve secondary schools affected teachers and pupils. A number of these features seem to have particular relevance to attendance (not truancy) including emphasis on academic matters, group syllabus planning, conscientious teacher behaviour, the use of effective rewards and pupils encouraged to take responsibility.

When these items of school organisation were combined into "school processes", the relationship between school process and attendance was strong and consistent:

> "..... secondary schools varied markedly with respect to their pupils' behaviour, attendance, exam success and delinquency ..... (and) these variations in outcome were systematically and strongly associated with the characteristics of schools as social institutions." (p205)

Rutter et al (1979) combined a study of the organisation and social framework of the schools to investigate teacher/pupil behaviour. There is clearly an overlap between school organisation and school "ethos", but the latter will be examined separately in the next section (see v) p46).

An examination of the relationship between certain school factors and absenteeism by Reid (1983) showed significant differences between persistent absentees and good attenders on the following variables:/

School variables on which the views of persistent absentees and their two control groups differed.

Item No.	Variable	Absentees and control group 1	Absentees and control group 2
1.	The curriculum - most preferred aspects	P 0.001	P 0.001
2.	" " least " "	"	"
4.	School dislikes	"	"
5.	School improvements	"	"
6.	School punishment for absenteeism	"	"
7.	Problems in school (pastoral care)	"	"
9.	Amounts of schoolwork	"	"
10.	Teachers	P 0.05	"
11.	"Good teachers"	P 0.001	"
15.	Parental interest in school work	"	"
16.	Parental visits to school	P 0.05	" (p<0)

Note: Control group 1 pupils were drawn from the same classes as absentees. Control group 2 pupils were drawn from academic streams. Both groups were matched by age and sex to the absentees.

This study, although it omitted a number of variables, is important for it provides some evidence that factors such as "the curriculum and teacher-pupil relationship" may not only help "cause" absences but may also encourage them to continue.

Finally, consider the views of O'Keeffe (1982) who, while acknowledging that children truant for many reasons, firmly believes that truancy is a "curricular" issue (on what evidence is unclear):/

> "People ... know what kinds of knowledge and skills they want their children to learn but imprisoned as they and their children are within the social wage, many parents have no way of signalling their preferences. Their children do it for them - with their feet." (p57)

O'Keeffe's views of truancy, however, seemed based on a description of "economic decision-making" for he saw truants as making rational decisions as to the costs and benefits of attending and not attending school!

(v) Social Climate of School

The internal organisation of school clearly plays an important part in shaping the school life of teachers and pupils. If, for example, teachers feel that they play a part in the running of the school, they may be more effective teachers and be better liked by their pupils. If, however, teachers see themselves as remote from management, they may be seen as unfriendly and ineffective by their pupils (Revans 1965).

The effect of a change of school organisation on a pupil (i.e. from primary to secondary) is expressed forcefully by a first year pupil in her fourth month in the school involved in the present survey:

> "The only good things about (Bailliol High School) is their dinners and the different subjects. With all these big people around me, I don't like it. At Primary school even though there were children older than you, they were still children whereas here they're just about adults, although some don't behave like them. The children here are so cheeky you wouldn't believe it. At Primary if somebody got the belt, it was a major event but here its very common. They speak back to the teacher and even swear at them. It's a sad fact that most of us in the first year are going to end up like that. In Primary, you never swore or talked back to a teacher, probably because you didn't have the courage but when the first years come at the beginning of term, they see the older ones talking back so they do it too. They/

They think it is big to talk back or get the belt.
They won't be so big when they join the dole queue."
(12 year old girl)

Would a change of school organisation also affect a pupil's attendance? There is some evidence that it might not. White and Peddie's (1978) study of the previous attendance records (both in primary and secondary school) of truants currently attending a Scottish comprehensive school, showed that although those who truanted in primary school increased their frequency of truancy in the secondary school, there was no fall in pupils' school attendance as a result of the move from primary to secondary. However, an earlier English study (Sandon 1961) did suggest that the attendance of the less able grammar girls became poorer not long after transfer from the primary school. This raises the interesting point, of course, of whether they already had a greater record of poor attendance in the primary school than the more able pupils.

We are reminded by Revans and the pupil quoted above that two of the variables to be considered when looking at the school as a social situation, are teacher characteristics and pupil characteristics. A third variable, the quality of relationship between teacher and pupil will now be examined.

Musgrove's (1966a,b) study of the needs of young people (see p54) showed that in many cases, schools failed to meet their pupils' demands for freedom and self-direction - freedom to put their own point of view and to be treated as an individual. Consider the feelings of a 15 year old girl in his study who said:- "At school, you always feel that you cannot do what you want and that the teachers are against you." Another 15 year old girl suggested that she felt "boxed in, regimented, treated like a second form and angry at the lack of trust", while yet another girl said that a/

a pupil (herself) always "feels like she's in prison - expected to obey the rules without question." This study was at school level, we now turn our attention to classroom level.

Reynolds (1976)suggests that where a "truce" situation exists between teacher and pupil, there may be a lower level of truancy, delinquency and vandalism, than where conflict between teacher and pupil exist with respect to such things as smoking, chewing gum and out of school behaviour. Werthman (1971) (see p 51) presents a similar picture of pupils cooperating with some teachers whom they regarded as being fair and not cooperating with others, who for example, tried to extend their authority to areas seen by the pupils as personal rather than academic.

A more detailed examination of the social environment of the classroom and teacher/pupil interaction in it will be the subject of the next section.

b) The Social Climate of the Classroom and Differing Teacher/ Pupil Interactions

Is it likely that the poor attenders will have a good relationships with their teachers? How will their teachers regard them?

When teachers make an early judgement on pupils, they use indicators such as appearance, conformity to discipline, conformity to academic role aspects, likeability and peer group relations (Hargreaves, Heston and Mellor 1975, pp 147,148).

Similarly, Morrison and McIntyre (1969) considered that teachers mainly use constructs such as pupil attainments, general classroom behaviour and attitude to teachers, and peer group relations to "type" their pupils.

Earlier discussions in this chapter have indicated that the poor attender does not make a good showing on many of those items when compared to the good attender. Further insights into this/

this process can be gained from "self-fulfilling prophecy" theory and "labelling" theory. Since the process is the same in both cases only the former will be looked at in detail.

Schematic summary of self-fulfilling prophecy theory in relation to absence.

1. The teacher believes that the pupil is a poor attender. This belief may or may not be correct (e.g. the child may have been ill but the parent was unable to produce a convincing sick note) - the effect will be the same.
2. The teacher reacts to the pupil as a potential truant, i.e. always "checking up" on attendance, becoming suspicious of all absences, expressing disbelief about the validity of "notes", surprise when the child is present.
3. The pupil begins to question whether it is worthwhile coming to the class to be constantly "picked on" by the teacher.
4. The Pupil's attendance begins to suffer even more and a wrong prophecy is made to come true.

(Amended from Hargreaves, Heston and Mellor 1975, p141).

The two theories show a similar effect on the poor attenders, the way the teachers may regard them, their progress in school and their involvement in pupil/teacher interactions. It may well be that such theories partly explain why Blythman (1977) noted that:-

> "Almost universally, the truants complained about the teachers who bawl, shout, lose their head and do not explain things properly.
>
> (no page number).

The whole question of teacher talk and language illustrates another potential source of discomfort to the pupil. Barnes (1969), for example, suggests that much of the language that teachers use is confusing to pupils, while Holt (1970), explaining that much of teacher talk is just classroom management, "keeping the kids in line", stresses that teachers tend to talk far too much.

The possible relation of the student absenteeism rate to the social climate of the classroom, was one of the variables studied by Moos and Moos (1978). In this study a representative sample of 19 classes was taken from one American high school. It was observed that the classes high in competition and teacher control and low in teacher support had high absenteeism rates. However, the authors pointed out that the effects on absenteeism of "student background and school and classroom setting characteristics" had still to be found. A further caveat is their lack of definition of what they meant by "competition" etc. It must also be noted that British studies/articles (e.g. Tyerman 1974) suggest that lower absence rates occur in grammar schools where competition between pupils and teacher control is probably highest.

In a study which compared the social and organisational climate of five English comprehensive schools, Wilcox (1976), found that the non-attenders did <u>not</u> accept schoolwork as/

as readily as attenders and, perhaps, because of this, were more likely to be subjected to a less democratic use of authority by their teachers.

In a study of delinquent "gang" members in schools, Werthman (1971) suggested that pupil behaviour was a reaction to that of teachers and his delinquent "gang" were found to become "ordinary" rule-keeping pupils in a classroom where they defined the teacher as "fair" and where they felt that they were being assessed only on academic grounds. Where this was the case, the pupils accepted the authority of the teacher. The "gang" members would not accept however, that a teacher's legitimate authority extended to allow judgements in such areas as dress, hair styles etc., and it was in the classrooms of teachers who claimed such authority or who graded work in an "unfair" manner that misbehaviour occurred.

Furlong (1976) illustrated this difference in behaviour where:-

> "..... different norms are being used and different interaction sets are in operation."
>
> (p163)

One example he gave was of a girl who was "hostile and disruptive" in some classes but who in others was very "work orientated". The reason for this difference in behaviour was said to relate not only to her different assessments of her teachers, their way of teaching and methods of control, but also the different perceptions of these things held by her teachers. Furthermore, he found that support by fellow pupils for anti-school anti-teacher behaviour by individuals varied with their perception of the classroom situation. Thus disruptive behaviour received no encouragement in situations defined by other class members as/

as "positive" ones in which the negative behaviour was inappropriate. This is a much more sophisticated picture than that of Hargreaves who saw his "contraculture" as consistently so in all circumstances.

A further value of the work of people such as Furlong, is that they shed light on the pupils who "bunk" from specific lessons rather than making off from school for the whole day - a "problem" which is probably fairly widespread but has had little consideration in the literature.

The implication made by Furlong that absences may be influenced by the pupils' unfavourable perceptions of their teachers (and their wish to avoid them) is supported by a number of recent studies, most of which paint a worrying picture of a lack of "good individual teacher-absentee relationships" in some schools (Reid 1983; Brown 1983; Galloway 1982; Gow and McPherson 1980).

Differences between pupils in terms of behaviour have been noted in this section, the next section will devote attention to differences between pupils in terms of attainment and satisfaction.

(c) Differences between Pupils

(i) Differences in attainment The relationship between pupil performance at school and their educational motivation is generally accepted as an educational "truth". For example, in the view of the Munn Committee (1977):

> "The degree of success achieved by pupils, perhaps more than any other single factor, will affect the attitude they take to the work they are asked to do. However relevant, varied or exciting a lesson or a syllabus may be it will fail if it is pitched at a level of difficulty which is inaccessible to pupils." (p55)

Such experiences of failure have an influence on pupils' self-esteem (Cohen 1976); "patterns of failure", for example, being seen/

seen to adversely affect self-esteem which in turn adversely affects school attendance (Reid 1982).

In the past, a noticeable feature of streaming was its tendency to lower the morale of the less able pupils, although enabling the brighter pupils to feel more satisfied with their own progress and their acceptance by teachers (Pearce 1958; Chetcuti 1961; Hargreaves 1967). None of these studies, however, indicated whether it was the poor attender or truant or good attender who were most/least favourably disposed to school.

The extent of the problem identified by Munn, is illustrated by an investigation of 150 comprehensive and secondary modern schools in England conducted by school inspectors in 1967/68 when experienced heads and staff estimated that over 14 per cent of their pupils were "slow learners" who were in need of special educational help and probably a simplified curriculum (H.M.Inspectorate 1971). Would such pupils be prone to poor attendance at school?

A number of studies confirm that many truants may be of below average intellectual ability (Kavanagh and Carroll 1977; Fogelman 1978; Billington 1979); Rutter et al 1979), while others point to their lower attainment level (Young 1946; Tyerman 1958; Hersov 1966a; Fogelman and Richardson 1974; May 1975; Rutter et al 1979; Farrington 1980).

The Pack Committee (1977) saw poor attainment as a causal factor since it might lead to a "sense of inadequacy" and hence to truancy, but it must be stressed that this is only one interpretation of the data. We know that attainment and truancy are related but lacking longitudinal studies, we cannot make a definitive ruling as to which is cause (if either) and which effect.

ii)/

ii) Differences in satisfaction

There is reason to believe that some pupils resort to truancy because they get less satisfaction from school than do the children who attend regularly. In their examination of the attitudes of teenage "persistent school absentees" towards school and home, Eaton and Houghton (1974) concluded that:-

> "..... teenage people liable to become persistent absentees in late adolescence differ from regular attenders in their levels of expectation and/or fulfilment at school. Generally, they would appear to consider that school does not recognise their wish to be valued as individuals. With maturation of thought and body during adolescence, the need increased for a closer, more adult relationship with school staff. The older absentees felt this most acutely. For them school had become an emotionally unrewarding place. (p168)

Truants (and other pupils, too) may, of course, have other conceptions of needs /expectations that they feel are not being fulfilled by school. These have been characterized by Musgrove (1966a, 1966b) as (a) "expressive" needs which included "feeling at ease, wanted, loved and secure" and (b) "instrumental" needs which included "character training, instruction in domestic and other skills, and preparation for getting ahead in the world". Musgrove's own study of 367 young people between 14 and 20 showed that in the main, school was seen in an "instrumental" way particularly in "intellectual training and preparation for a career", but also made evident that many of his subjects felt that school did not meet their "expressive" needs. In part explanation of this finding, Musgrove (1966) mentions:

> "..... the aloofness and authoritarian attitudes of staff .... as well as the impersonality of the organisation." (p140)

Unfortunately, no attempt was made in this inquiry to relate these needs and their fulfilment or otherwise to poor school attendance. This was, however, the basis of Eaton and Houghton's (1974) study of 120 teenage truants and their controls, drawn from nine schools in Northern Ireland. Pupils from both secondary modern and grammar schools were considered and the study sought to discover whether any differences existed between the needs and satisfactions of the truants and their controls (who had been matched with respect to age, sex, family size and socio-economic background), and if such differences varied according to the type of school attended.

Their conclusions were based on the answers given by the pupils to a two-part questionnaire. The first part was designed, using Musgrove's as an example, to find out what were the needs of the pupils at home and school. It consisted of six statements which had to be completed to form sentences, for example:

> "First and foremost, school should help you to ..... " (p171)

The second part consisted of forty statements designed to draw from the pupils whether the needs they had indicated in the first part of the questionnaire were being satisfied by home and school, thus:-

> "Instrumental needs were sorted into intellectual skills, physical skills, manual skills, social skills, moral skills and personal advancement. Expressive needs were grouped into ease/emotional security, freedom/self direction, friendship, sense of competence, support from adults, group identity, and purposeful activity. (p163)

The study indicated that the absentees, from both types of/

of school and both sexes felt that school was not meeting their "expressive" needs nor were they satisfied with the way the school coped with their "instrumental" demands.

A similar pattern of poor attenders' dissatisfaction with school is reported by Kavanagh and Carroll (Carroll 1977), in their examination of 277 pupils drawn from three comprehensive schools. The poor attenders were found to be more likely than others to express a negative attitude towards school, more liable to feel that they experienced a poor relationship with their teachers, less likely to derive emotional satisfaction from their school environment, and less likely to see their teachers as concerned for them as individuals and democratic in their dealings with them.

More recent studies too, indicate that truants feel that school does not have a lot to offer them. Reid (1983), for example, concludes that many persistent absentees enjoyed "nothing" about school and that the causes of their dislike were "teacher, rule, curricula and discipline" factors.

Again in assessing such studies we can only say that they provide evidence that absence is associated with lack of satisfaction with school. Whether the truancy is <u>caused</u> by that lack of satisfaction or whether the truancy <u>causes</u> academic or interpersonal difficulties in the classroom remains subject to speculation. As Section 3(b) showed the interaction of factors may produce a complex pattern which related not only to pupil-teacher relationships or pupils' individual aspirations but also to the operation of pupil-pupil interaction sets in the classroom.

iii)/

iii) Peer group influences/differences No discussion of the differences between pupils would be complete without an examination of the influences of the peer group and their possible effects on pupils' attitudes/attendances.

There is evidence to suggest that these influences are real and and that their effects are clearly perceptible. Seabrook (Turner 1974), for example, has suggested (albeit on the strength of only four interviews with truants) that persistent truants have problems with peer group relationships rather than with school, and that their truancy is seen as a means of avoiding contact with the peer groups.

In contrast, Hargreaves (1967) and Lacey (1966), when considering the formation of peer groups and the consequent peer expectations of pupils, called attention to the tendency for pupils who feel designated as academic failures to group together in rejecting school values, developing anti-social attitudes and absenting themselves from school. Both researchers also noted the need for members of the "delinquescent" groups to identify with what they perceived as symbols of adult status such as smoking and drinking.

The proposition that dissatisfaction with school leads to identification with the outside school "teen" culture and that such identification causes conflict with the traditional ethos of the school, was put forward by Stinchcombe (1964) in his study of a working class high school in Chicago. He suggested that pupils who were dissatisfied with school because of their lack of success began to question the utility of schoolwork to their future goals and that this led to truancy. He believed that this blow to their morale led pupils to identify more with the outside school "teen" culture, cars, cigarettes, dating and marriage than with school.

Similarly, Sugarman (1967) found that pupils who were highly/

highly committed to the "teenager" role (which he regarded as an inversion of the official pupil role) were most likely to be pupils of low achievement, poor conduct and attendance. However, while he suggested that:

> "Pupils who are already becoming alienated from school are likely to turn to teenage committments as a symbolic expression of this attitude ...". (p159)

he was <u>not</u> definite about which came first. Only for <u>some</u> pupils, he suggested, did low achievement lead to increasing teenage identification, with others it was the reverse. What he was sure of was that:

> " ... the amount of support a schoolboy can get from his fellows for rejecting the values ... (of) school ... is now greater than ever." (p154)

Most studies appear to show that those turning away from school values get peer group support, either directly through classmates or by identification with more amorphous "teenage" or "adult" culture outside school. If the group norms are such that the standard and attitudes of the peer group are hostile to the school, a pupil's motivation to do well at school or even to attend it may well be affected; alternatively s(he) may enjoy attending and disrupting classes (cf. Hargreaves "C" stream).

However, it must be noted that the <u>classroom</u> peer group may provide a <u>pro-school</u> influence. In her study of a class of 31 children, Root (1977), found that for a number of them, the peer groups provided a source of motivation to produce work and so was an important part of the learning process (see also Werthman's study p51).

(d) Aspirations and Interests outside School

Some parts of the previous sections have considered the poor attender/truant as being "produced" almost without volition by various factors in the home, school and other outside influences, while others (especially the later school based studies) tend to see pupils as making a rational decision to absent themselves under certain circumstances. Such decisions also arise in choosing interests, and planning for the future. The present small section will focus on this.

(i) Leisure Pursuits The "typical" Tom Sawyer image of a truant with a fishing rod links leisure and truancy, but is this true? Unfortunately, few studies have specifically looked at the relationship between leisure activities and poor school attendance or truancy.

Of those who have, Lindsay (1968) simply mentioned that the poor attenders in her study watched more T.V. than their peers! Enjoyment of spare time was examined by Fogelman and Richardson (Turner 1974), who found that more truants enjoyed their spare time than non-truants, but that on the other hand, more truants were often more bored than the non-truants.

When they considered extra-curricular school activities, Rutter et al (1979) found that most items, including out of school clubs and other activities, showed no relationship with attendance.

Similarly, Blythman (1977) reported no significant findings on out of school activities of truants, (i) when truanting and (ii) in evenings and at weekends, in so far as they involved participation in (a) youth organisations, (b) association with friends and companions and (c) employment. She also observed that truants leisure activities in general appeared to be limited and, in particular, they showed a/

a lack of interest in school clubs and activities. However, the point was also made that while truants could be "bored, lethargic and indifferent" in school they could also be "purposeful in things that interested them."

While it appeared that there may be no proven link between leisure activities and truancy, it may be that no study of the attitudes of poor attenders/truants would be complete without such an examination for there might be a more general gearing to teenage or grown up interests (e.g. Stinchcombe (1964) as already discussed on page 57. Further, it has been asserted that it is in their leisure lives that people feel they are expressing their real personalities (Parker 1975).

(ii) Job Prospects

While writers have looked at what pupils bring to school (in terms of parental attitudes, for example) and how this relates to what happens in school, it is also necessary to consider pupils' views of what they will bring out of school that will be relevant for their future.

We have already discussed Musgrove's (1966a,b) "instrumental" function (p54) (relevance of school and schoolwork to the pupil's future) and noted that "preparation for a career" was considered by the pupils to be one of the important items making up this function. However, more than half of the secondary modern pupils in Musgrove's study did not see school in this "instrumental" light.

It is possible that this difference of opinion may have been due, in part, to pupils holding different perceptions of the school/work connection and its relevance to them. For example, we have already noted (see p27), that many present day pupils do not see any association/

association between school and their future job prospects. However, this may vary according to the type of job being considered/expected by the pupil. Liversidge (Williams 1974) who investigated the influences on pupils' occupational expectations and aspirations, concluded that:

> "... (there is) ... accurate appraisal of life chances by the children and a shrewd appreciation of the social and economic implications of their placing within the educational system." (p74)

Other research has found similar realism being shown by pupils appraising their future employment prospects, with their job governed, in many cases, by the opportunities they knew were open to them (Fogelman 1979; Raby and Walford 1981). However if they had a choice of job, many pupils felt that two important factors in that choice were the nature of the work and the conditions of work (Raby and Walford 1981).

Unfortunately, none of these studies took the opportunity to look for any differences in the way that poor attenders/truants and good attenders view such matters. A recent study, however, which investigated pupils' "long term career aspirations" showed that the majority of academic good attenders had high job status aspirations while many absentees and less able good attenders only sought to gain unskilled or semi-skilled work (or were unsure) (Reid 1983).

This study, however, did not attempt to discover whether the poor and good attenders might have different wishes as regards a <u>first</u> full time job and/or might give different weight to the various aspects involved in such a choice; nor did it attempt to differentiate between absentees and good attenders' views on a basis of sex.

It appears that data on these areas is not as full as it might be and yet, if poor attendance (or some of it) is seen as having a rational basis, this would seem an important aspect.

(e) Overview/Hypotheses

The preceding discussion has drawn attention to a number of features as determinants of a child's actions in school (or avoiding it).

It has been indicated that in many cases the school itself has to provide the necessary stimulus to motivate the poor attender to come more regularly. Unfortunately, some of the studies examined, have shown the school as motivating children to be absent. The school, therefore, not only has to "motivate" the poor attender to attend, it has also to look at its own "faults".

Tyerman sums up the situation (in Turner, 1974) when he writes:

> "In the case of truancy ... the key to prevention lies in the child knowing that he belongs in his home and school, that he counts for something, and that his parents and teachers care about him.... in the school a sense of purpose and concern for the individual are powerful influences for good." (pp16, 17)

It has been seen from previous discussion that a sense of purpose in school may be achieved if both the poor attender and the good attender feel that what the school provides is relevant to their lives in the world beyond the school as well as serving their needs in it. Despite the effects of unemployment (see p26)(or perhaps because of them) many people may see this relevance in connection with job opportunities (Pack Report 1977; Munn Report 1977). Even/

Even truants, the Pack Report states:

> "... expect school to show an interest in their job prospects and to adopt a positive approach in demonstrating that interest." (p82)

It seems probable that this would be true for both male and female truants for they may have common views on a number of themes including career aspirations (Reid 1981, 1982a, 1983).

Musgrove (1966a,b) too, considered that "preparation for a career" was one of the most important "instrumental" demands made by pupils on schools. However, it has already been noted (see p55) that the absentees in Eaton and Houghton's (1974) study were not satisfied that their "instrumental" demands were being met by school. Also noted, was Liversidge's (Williams 1974) suggestion that many pupils' occupational hopes are considerably depressed as they go through secondary school, with the result that they have a realistic idea of the best type of job that they can hope to get.

With these points in mind, and in the light of Raby and Walford's (1981) suggestion that while the majority of pupils consider a "safe and steady job" as a priority, they also consider that the "nature of the work and the conditions of life attached to the work" to be of prime importance, it is possible to postulate that different career orientations and satisfactions may relate to attendance even though no one has yet made the relationship empirically.

In the light of the preceding discussions it seemed reasonable to conjecture that:

Poor and Good attenders will evaluate differently the "instrumental" value of school. One such "instrumental" context will relate to the pupils' views of the job opportunities open to them/

them after leaving school. Another will relate to the importance that pupils attach to various sources of job satisfaction (such as condition of the working environment) that may be available to them. Thus the poor attenders may see themselves as entering employment where the advantage conferred by "school knowledge" is likely to be small. Conversely, the good attenders may be those who see the school system as providing qualifications, training and references, which are necessary to achieve their job choice/satisfactions.

More concisely: Hypothesis (1) Poor and good attenders will hold different views of their future in terms of preference for different types of job.

Hypothesis (2) Poor and good attenders will hold different perceptions of the importance of the main sources of work satisfaction.

Many of the studies previously discussed, especially Reynolds (1976; 1984), Reynolds et al (1977; 1980), Rutter et al (1979) and Reid (1981; 1982; 1983; 1984), show clearly that schools themselves have a large influence on attendance, that pupil-teacher relationships is is a contributory factor and the importance of the school climate to the study of poor attendance. For example, Reid (1983) suggests that absenteeism may be affected by the "quality and attitudes" of the teachers, while other evidence concludes that truants feel that schools are failing to meet their "expressive" needs. But, in a number of studies, it was schools as well as truants/non-truants which were being compared. Perhaps the matter of the school climate of "one single school" and its possible effects on truancy (which seems to have been little explored) needs further study.

In the light of the evidence already discussed, it seemed reasonable to conjecture that:

Poor and Good attenders will also evaluate the "expressive" functions of school differently. The poor attenders, for example, may be expected to see themselves as having teachers who are not sensitive to their individual needs and who, by use of their authority, will not permit them adequate self-expression and self-direction. In addition, they may feel that they get little satisfaction from taking part in school activities.

More concisely: Hypothesis (3) Poor and Good attenders will hold different perceptions of the "atmosphere of the school".

The evidence already examined indicates that while few studies have specifically looked at leisure activities and poor school attendance or truancy, those which have, suggested that there may be no proven association between the two. The research data on leisure values and behaviour of truants is limited and the topic deserves further study. For instance, by setting up specially staffed community service and/or leisure departments, providing extra curricular leisure opportunities, schools have confirmed that they see leisure provision as a legitimate sphere of interest for schools. In its discussion of "preparation for leisure" the Pack Committee (1977) recommended an expansion of schools' "informal" activities (cf. Reid 1983).

Roberts (1970) suggests that people's spare time activities may play a large part in the development of their sense of identity and that knowledge of their leisure based values may help to explain their conduct in other spheres.

Such conceptions illuminate Sugarman's (1966,1967) tracing of the/

the association between pupils' committment to a "teenager" role involving a preponderance of leisure pursuits unacceptable to schools and poor attendance (see p57).

A number of questions arise. Do poor attenders spare time activities play some part in their poor school attendance? Would knowledge of poor attenders out of school activities, some of which may be held in low esteem by schools, help in understanding their poor school attendance? Is it possible to distinguish between the spare time activities participated in by both poor and good attenders? If the activities were the same, would there be a difference in the amount of time spent by poor and good attenders on those various activities?

More concisely: Hypothesis (4) Poor and Good attenders will spend different amounts of time on various different leisure pursuits.

A final question arises. Will maturational changes have any influence on the responses made by poor and good attenders to the factors already discussed? To help answer this a further hypothesis seems necessary:

Hypothesis (5) Poor and Good attenders' responses to the four factors already discussed, i.e. job preference/satisfaction, view of school climate and spare time activities will be different after one year.

CHAPTER 3

PRESENT STUDY

(i) The Setting

The town (which for purposes of anonymity will be called "Devorgilla") in which the study was conducted is an attractive county town in South-West Scotland. It is the largest town in the region with a population of around 30,000 which includes only a small number of people born outside the United Kingdom, and contributes a major share to the industrial output of the area. The town also serves as the market centre for the rich farming land that surrounds it. The countryside around "Devorgilla" and the river which flows through it provide numerous recreational opportunities. Two distinct urban zones, separated by the river; can be distinguished. On one side there has been a consistent development of private estates, while on the other there has been a great deal of local authority housing.

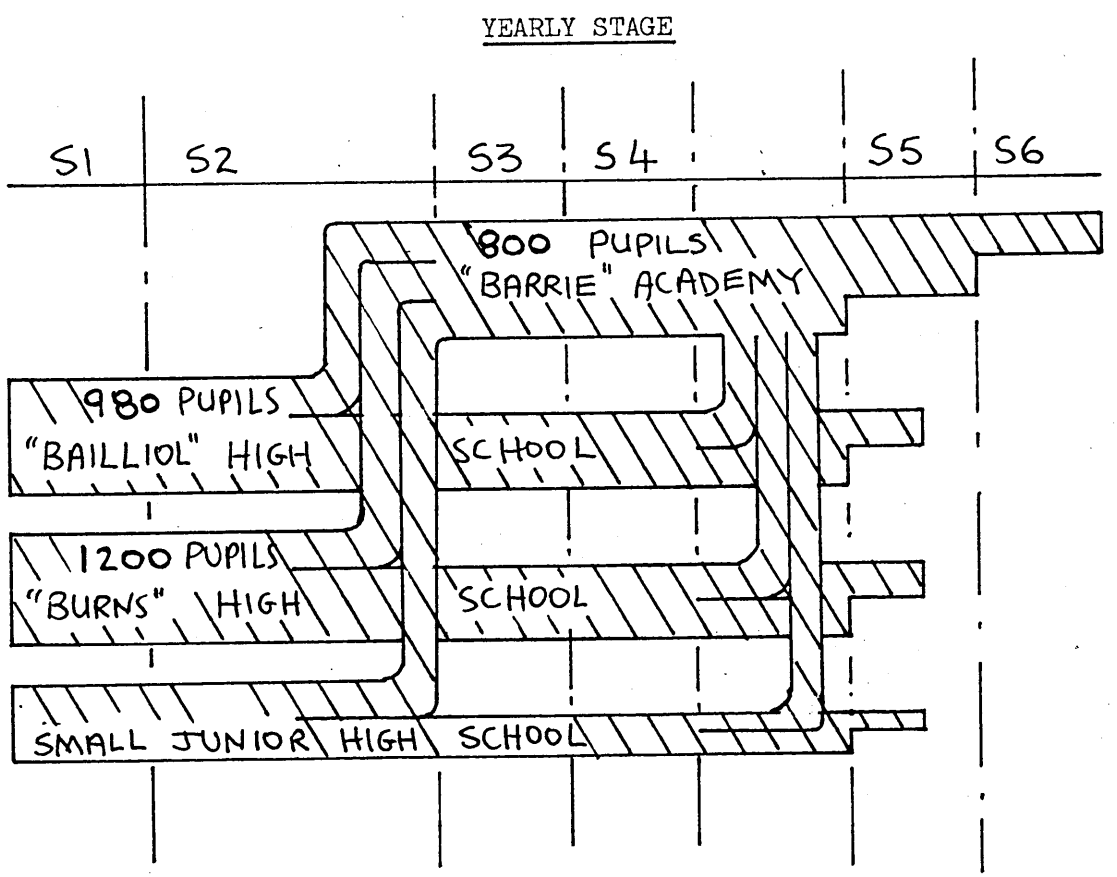
Secondary education in "Devorgilla" was re-organised along comprehensive lines in 1970 by establishing a two-tier system. This involved the two Junior High Schools, "Burns High School" and "Balliol High School" receiving between them all pupils from primary school at the age of 12, but later sending the academically most able 30% of their pupils to the senior school, "Barrie Academy" at the end of the second year (i.e. when the pupils were around 14 years old) with a further, more limited, transfer of pupils after stage S4 (i.e. when the pupils were around 16 years old.)

After regionalisation another small Junior High School on the outskirts of the town also became involved in the two-tier system.

N.B. - Burns, Baillol and Barrie are, of course, not the real names of the schools concerned.

Diagram 1 illustrates the non-denominational secondary schools involved in "Devorgilla's" two-tier system and the transfer stages.

Diagram 1 The non-denominational secondary schools and the transfer stages in "Devorgilla's" two-tier system.



As indicated by Diagram 1., the two-tier system resulted in "Barrie" Academy catering for selected pupils from Stage S3 to Stage S6, while the Junior High Schools catered for mixed-ability pupils in Stage S1 and Stage S2 and thereafter for pupils who were, in the main, of average or below average ability.

This system gave rise to a number of difficulties, not least of which was the stress on Stage S2 pupils and their parents - a stress similar to that caused by the pressures of the old eleven plus examination. Each year the transfer system resulted in a number of disputes involving parents displeased because their children were not being transferred to the senior school, and in some cases those who wished to refuse the transfer offered.

The difficulties experienced suggested that the two-tier arrangement was not operating successfully as a comprehensive system.

> "Despite much initial organisation of liaison, there was little evidence that the schools in "Devorgilla" had gained much insight into each other's aims and objectives..... The point which all discussions appear to have missed is that the Authority set up the two-tier system in "Devorgilla" with the specific aim of providing an integrated form of comprehensive education. This aim has not been implemented."
>
> (H.M. Inspector 1975 p.18)

Because of this the authorities have now replaced the two-tier system with "all through" comprehensive schools.

The following discussion however refers to the Burgh schools as they were in the two-tier system before the 1983/84 session.

"Bailliol" Junior High School - the school involved in the present survey.

"Bailliol" High School, less than a decade old when the present survey was begun, has a roll of around 980 pupils. It is situated in one of the two large local authority housing schemes where the majority of its pupils also live. The school is "fed" by seven primary schools, consisting of four which serve the two large local authority housing schemes, one which serves private housing as well as a small local authority housing scheme, one very small country primary school and a primary school in the centre of the town which sends only the occasional pupils (the vast majority of their pupils going to "Burns" High School).

In the first year, the courses are organised so that all pupils except the least able are placed in mixed ability classes and follow a common course of subjects which includes French. At the beginning of the second year, pupils are set, according to ability, in classes for English, Mathematics, Science and French while, for the other subjects the first year organisation is retained. Remedial education is provided in separate classes at Stage S1 and S2. The pupils are selected for remedial education in their first year as part of the process of transfer from primary to secondary school, on the basis of tests carried out by the Child Guidance Department, the primary Head Teacher's assessment and that of "Bailliols" Principal Teacher of Remedial Education.

The remedial class in Stage S2 is composed of those pupils whose progress in the first year remedial classes has not been sufficient to allow them to join the common course in Stage S2 or to repeat Stage S1.

In Stage S3 and S4, the pupils have the opportunity of attempting a course consisting of up to five subjects at Ordinary Grade of the S.C.E., C.S.E. Subjects, a general (non-certificate) course, a combination of S.C.E. and C.S.E. subjects, or a combination of C.S.E. and general subjects.

The curriculum to be followed is decided in the following manner. A programme is tentatively arrived at between guidance teacher and pupil, on the basis of the pupil's interests and his/her teachers estimates of his/her ability. This programme is then vetted by a committee composed of the Principal Teachers of subject and guidance, Headmaster and Depute, and is then submitted to the parents for approval.

The guidance structure in "Bailliol" is vertical which means that each member of the guidance staff is involved with pupils in all age groups and that a pupil keeps the same guidance teacher for his/her school life.

Of the schools shown in diagram I, "Bailliol" High School and "Burns" High School are the most similar. They are both Junior High schools (stages S1 to S4) with generally similar curricular organisations and similar guidance structures. However "Bailliol"

High School has smaller pupil numbers, more modern buildings, and a slightly different remedial provision compared to "Burns" High School. There is also a difference in their catchment areas, for a large proportion of the pupils of "Bailliol" come from local authority council housing while many of "Burns" pupils come from private housing. A further dissimilarity, of importance to the present study, is illustrated by Table 9 which shows the large difference in the number of poor school attenders referred by the two schools to the School Council attendance sub-committee, between the years 1976-1980.

Table 9 Number of pupils referred to "Devorgilla" School Council for poor school attendance since 1976 to 1980 by age and school

SCHOOLS	AGE					TOTAL
	12+	13+	14+	15+	16+	
Barrie Academy 800 pupils				1		1
Bailliol High 900 "	12	28	22	26	3	91
Burns High 1200 "	4	10	12	13	1	40
Small High				1		1
Small Catholic Girls school		1	3	7		11
						144

Source: School Council Report (Macleod, 1980)

As Table 9 shows, 63% of the pupils referred to "Devorgilla" School Council were pupils of "Bailliol" while only 28% were "Burns" pupils, and yet "Burns" had the higher proportion of pupils on its school roll. It seems that 10% of "Bailliol" pupils were appearing before the School Council compared to only 3.3% of "Burns" pupils. The difference between the two schools' referrals is significant (Chi-square = 39.24, D.F. =1, PL=0.001).

This may indicate that "Bailliol's" teachers are more alert to the problem of poor school attendance and more inclined to use the referral system, or it may mean that the problem of poor school attendance is greater in "Bailliol" than in "Burns."

ii) Aims of Study

The general aim of the present investigation(outlined in more detail in chapter 2 pp62/66) was to discover whether there was any significant difference between poor attenders and good attenders with respect to four factors which might affect a child's motivation towards schooling.

Those four factors were:

(i) The pupil's view of his/her future in terms of preference for different types of jobs.

(ii) The pupil's perception of main sources of work satisfaction.

(iii)The pupil's view of the school atmosphere

(iv) The pupil's spare time activities.

A supplemntary aim was

(v) To discover whether the two groups responses to the above four factors would be influenced by psychological and physiological maturation.

It was thus necessary to retest the two groups of pupils a year later (i.e. just a few weeks before a number of them were due to leave school) in a similar manner to the first test, to see if any changes had taken place in

(a) their responses as reported on the original questionnaires.

(b) their school attendance

It should be noted that during retesting, seven poor attenders, four boys and three girls, had to be omitted from the study as they were no longer attending the school. Two had moved to a new

secondary school, two were in social work homes while the rest were respectively in an assessment centre, a List D school and a small establishment which had recently been set up in the area for truants, school refusers, etc.

Selection of Groups for Study

The plan of the study involved choosing a number of poor attenders, both boys and girls and matching them individually with respect to age, sex and class group (certificate or non-certificate) with a control child whose attendance was regular.

The first problem lay in selecting a group of poor attenders. As a starting point it was decided to adopt the Pack Committee definition of truants, i.e. those manifesting:

> ".....unauthorised absence from school for any period, as a result of premeditated or spontaneous action on the part of the pupil, parent or both".
> (Pack Report 1977 p18)

To identify such pupils every school register of attendance was examined . A list was then drawn up with the aid of the Register and Guidance Teachers of those pupils with unauthorised absences. Care was taken, of course, to exclude pupils whose absence was due to illness or other "unavoidable" causes. The numbers of those pupils who had some unexplained absences are shown in Table 10.

Table 10 Distribution of unexplained absence and yearly stage

Session 1977-78

YEAR	NUMBER OF PUPILS (N)	NUMBER OF PUPILS WITH SOME UNEXPLAINED ABSENCES (N)	(%)
Stage S1	314	7	2
Stage S2	273	49	18
Stage S3	207	60	29
Stage S4	178	90	51

As table 10 shows, the distribution of "absentees" showed a marked increase in each yearly stage from S1 to S4 so that while unexplained absence was very rare in S1, it was practically "normal" behaviour in S4. Because of these differences, it was felt that there might be advantages in restricting the age range of the study group so as to minimize intra-group variation. A choice had therefore to be made as to which age groups to include and which to exclude.

Stage S1 pupils were only in their second term at school and therefore to some extent, were still "settling in". Also, and perhaps more important, S1 had very few poor attenders and therefore those involved might manifest qualitative differences from these absenting themselves in later years when the behaviour became much more widely spread. For these reasons, the first year pupils were not included in the study.

Stage S4 pupils were also rejected because many of them were due to leave school within a few weeks of data collection. In addition, it was suggested that many of the fourth year pupils seemed to consider that they had already left unofficially. (Table 10 shows that 1 in 2 was illegally absent). Furthermore, this age group would not be available in the school for retesting at a later date and it was considered desirable to assess how poor attenders attitudes changed over time (see p 66),

The choice therefore settled on those pupils in Stage S2 (273) and S3 (207). Even here, however, there were problems of comparability and internal homogeneity. The main difficulty lay in the organisation of local schools (see p 67) by which a proportion of stage S2 pupils were being transferred to the senior school at the end of the term. The "top third" of the pupils of Stage S2 had already been informed that they were on the "transfer list" to the senior school and had already begun to consider the curriculum that they would follow there. They were in the process of being addressed by the Headteacher and Principal teachers of the senior school and were being encouraged to think themselves into the role of a pupil of that school. This might have affected responses on school climate, future jobs, etc.

None of those transferring were in the "absentee" group and if those pupils had been admitted to the study it would only have been as a "control". This might have resulted in a "Bailliol" "absentee" being contrasted with a Grammar school "control". By

the time of the second test the transferring pupils would have absorbed the culture pattern of a different type of school and developed appropriate vocational aims which if the matched pupil remained in "Bailliol", would cause differentiation in responses related to school type rather than poor attendance.

Maintenance of internal homogeneity also led to the exclusion of the very small number of country children in Stage S2 and S3. These pupils in Stage S3 who had been involved in transfer disputes in the previous session were also excluded in case any of them still felt aggrieved that they were not in the school of their (or their parents') choice.

After removal of these cases, 173 (63% of the original group) S2 pupils and 201 (97%) S3 pupils formed the "population" from which the study groups was drawn.

Selection of "poor attenders" involved the abstraction of all those pupils who were on the unauthorised absence list (see p75) and who had more than 55 such absences out of a total of 276 possible attendances during the period 25 August 1977 to 7 April 1978 (3).

---

(3) This absence rate (i.e. more than 20%) was chosen in accord with Tyerman's (1968) suggestion (based on figures from the Education Welfare Officers' National Association Report (1965)) that the pupil who averaged about a day's absence or more each week was the "hard core" poor attender.

The choice of the good attenders Many of the important variables affecting poor school attendance have already been discussed (see Ch. 1 and 2); in order to equalise these variables between poor and good attenders as far as possible, we tried to match the subjects on them (Eaton and Houghton 1974; Carroll 1977; Brown 1982). By equalising the effects of such extraneous variables we reduce the chance that they will have an effect on the experimental outcome.

Some researchers suggest (see Ch. 2 pp28/31) that differences in views between poor and good attenders may be the result of differing outlooks and educational experiences which are related to social class differences. In an attempt to eliminate differences that may arise from social class, the two groups of pupils were matched on the basis of housing area (by far the largest group of school pupils came from two large housing schemes).

It was not possible to match the subjects on the basis of differences in father's job, parental attitudes, marital relationships, home conditions, level of income or whether the parents were uncooperative or not, because the information was either not available or was not made available to the researcher.

The choice of the good attenders (the controls) was determined principally by the regularity of attendance and then by birth date and teaching group. With regard to age and teaching group it has been shown (age - Mitchell and Shepherd 1980; teaching group - Hargreaves 1967; Reid 1984) that they are variables that are associated with how pupils view schools in general and teachers in particular. Each poor attender was matched individually with a good attender who was of the same sex, in the same teaching group as that of the poor attender and whose birth date was closest to that of the relevant poor attender. In most cases the two children thus paired had been born within a/

a month of each other.

The number of poor attenders drawn from each teaching group in each year and the number of pupils in each teaching group available for inclusion (and from which the good attenders were drawn), are shown in Table 11. It should be noted that there are no remedial classes as such in Stage S3, remedial pupils from the previous Stage S2 class usually going into the general (non-certificate) classes, but sometimes with the chance of studying one or two C.S.E. subjects.

Table 11

Number of poor attenders per teaching group in each year

STAGE S2	Common Course Classes			Remedial Class		
	No. of pupils (N)	No. ofpoor attenders (N)	(%)	No. of pupils (N)	No. of poor attenders (N)	(%)
Boys	77	9	11.7	9	2	22.2
Girls	90	8	8.9	7	2	28.6
STAGE S3	CERTIFICATE CLASSES			NON CERTIFICATE CLASSES		
Boys	69	3	4.3	41	8	19.5
Girls	53	7	13.2	38	10	26.3

NOTE:

3 poor attenders, 1 stage S2 common course boy, 1 stage S3 Non-Certificate class boy and 1 stage S3 non-certificate class girl, shown in table 5, were "lost" because they were never at school during the relevant time (the early summer of 1978 onwards) and it was felt that attempts to contact them elsewhere (e.g. at home) would involve an unwarranted degree of difference in testing conditions. Thus, 46 poor attenders, 20 boys and 26 girls were included in the study.

(iii) The Instruments

As can be seen from section (ii) of this chapter, hypotheses for testing related to job preferences and interests, pupil's perceptions of the school climate and leisure pursuits. With this in mind, the following instruments were chosen:-

(a) Occupational Interests

To assess the job preferences of the poor attenders and their controls, the Crowley Occupational Interest Blank was chosen. This comprehensive test had the additional advantage that it is specifically designed for use by the average and less able pupil of both sexes.

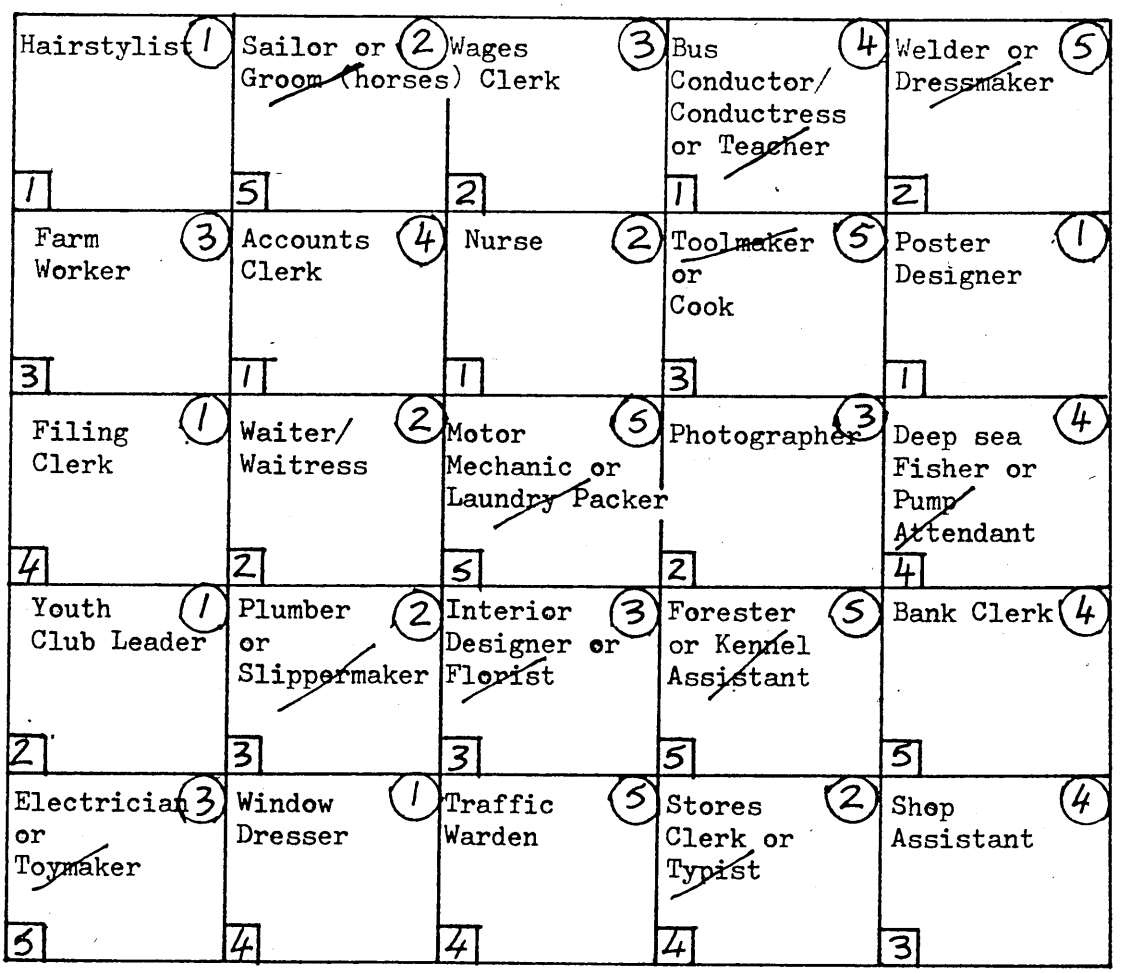
Part I of the Blank (see Appendix I) is used to assess the pupil's interest in 5 broad areas of occupational activity. These 5 interest areas are:-

1. Active/Outdoor, representing occupations such as a farmworker.
2. Office representing occupations such as a bank clerk.
3. Social representing occupations such as a nurse
4. Practical representing occupations such as a welder or dressmaker
5. Artistic representing occupations such as a hairstylist

Part I of the Blank (a part of which is shown overleaf consists of a grid of 25 cells (5x5) with each cell representing one of the 5 main interest areas, by having in it a job relevant to that area.

The pupil begins by considering the cells which have two jobs in them. The name of the job preferred is left but the other is crossed out. Next, the pupil considers the five jobs listed down the first column. S(he) allocates five points to the job that interests him/her most, down to one point for the job that interests him/her least. This procedure is followed for all the columns and rows. The raw score for each of the five interests areas is found by adding the scores in each of the relevant squares.

Diagram 2 Part of Part 1 of the Crowley Occupational Interests Blank.



In the example shown, the pupil's raw scores are:-

Active / Outdoor	40
Office	30
Social	22
Practical	38
Artistic	20

The highest possible score is 50 and the lowest is 10. The raw score may then be transferred to a plotting sheet which has lettered grades based on a sample of over 1200 pupils whose average age was 15. (See Appendix I for grades, means and standard deviations of scores given in the manual to the Crowley Blank).

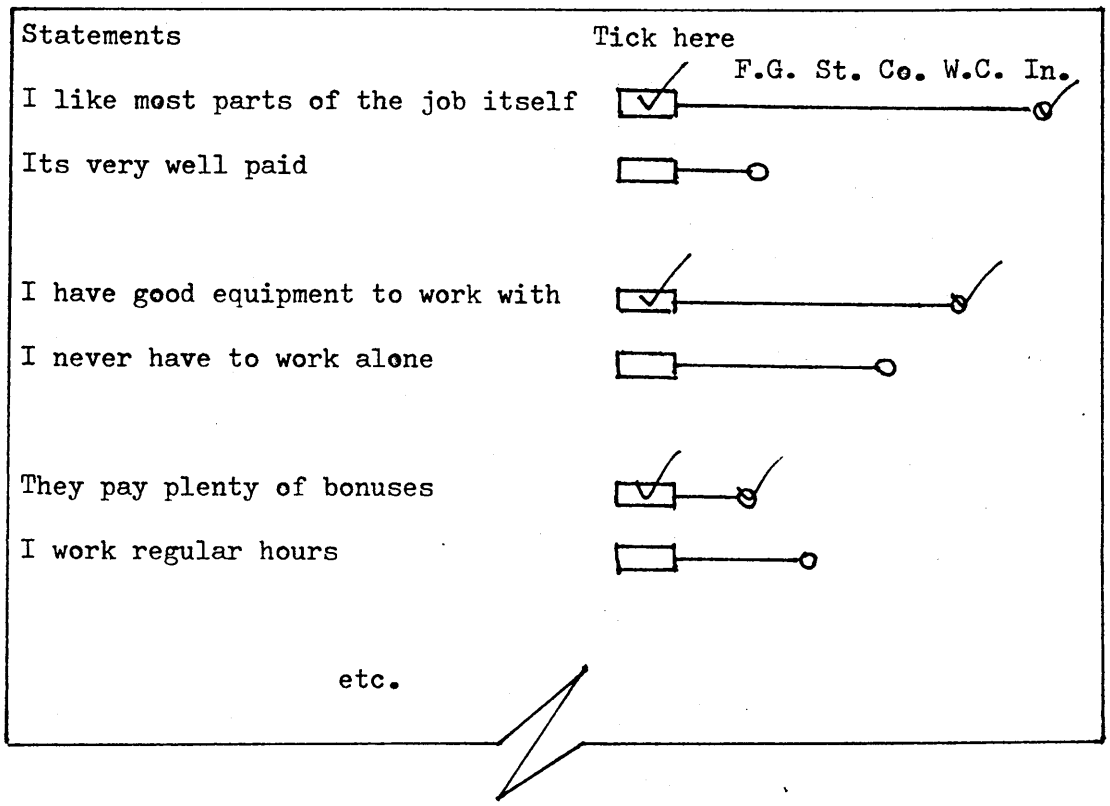
Part 2 of the Crowley Blank, attempts to discover what <u>importance</u> the pupil attaches to 5 sources of <u>occupational</u> satisfaction. These 5 sources are:-

1. Financial Gain — representing the pupil's desire for money.
2. Stability/Security — representing the pupil's need for steadiness and security in the job.
3. Companionship — representing the pupil's need for fellowship and company.
4. Working Conditions — representing the pupil's need to be interested in the job itself.

8 separate statements represent each of these sources of satisfaction, giving a total of 40 statements in all. These statements have been arranged into 20 pairs so that a statement from each sphere of satisfaction is paired with one from each of

the others. (See Diagram 3 below).

Diagram 3 A Section from Part 2 of the Crowley Occupational Interests Blank.



In diagram 3, paired statements from Part 2 of the Blank have been chosen to illustrate each of the satisfaction sources. The pupil is asked to select from each pair the statement which s(he) thinks would apply if s(he) were in a job that s(he) enjoyed. In the examples given in Diagram 3, the pupil has chosen statements which indicate interest in the job itself, interest in the working conditions of the job and interest in the financial gain.

The raw scores are then totalled with each "satisfaction" category and transferred to a plotting sheet from which a grade is obtained. (See Appendix I for full details taken from the manual to the Crowley Blank).

(b) Assessment of Pupil's View of the School

Finlayson's School Climate Index was chosen to obtain information about the ways in which the poor attenders and their controls viewed certain aspects of the behaviour of their teachers and the other pupils in the school. (See Appendix 2). This Index which is said to be suitable for pupils aged 13 upwards, contains four sub-scales; two represent pupil behaviour and two represent teacher behaviour. These four dimensions relate to both the instrumental and expressive aspects of group behaviour, Finlayson has called them Emotional Tone, Task Orientation, Concern and Social Control and has represented them as shown in Diagram 4.

Diagram 4 Composition of School Climate Index.

	Pupil Behaviour	Teacher Behaviour
Emotional Needs	Emotional Tone	Concern
Aspects of Social Control	Task Orientation	Social Control

(Finalyson's definitions of these four dimensions are given in Appendix 2).

The questionnaire has thirty four items, nine for Task Orientation, seven for Emotional Tone, nine for Concern and nine for Social Control. The pupils had to indicate a measure of their agreement or disagreement for each item, ranging from 0 to 4 and a high score on any of the four sub-scales indicated positive Task Orientation, positive Emotional Tone, a high degree of Concern and Democratic Control, as shown in Diagram 5.

Diagram 5 Part of Finlayson's School Climate Index.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Item 8. Teachers try to make you feel grown up.		✓			
Item 14. Pupils are proud to wear the school uniform.				✓	
Item 20. Pupils dislike being here.			✓		
Item 31. A lot of time is wasted in our classes.				✓	
etc.					

(c) Leisure Activities

After discussion with small groups of pupils a list of contemporary local leisure interests was drawn up and became the basis of a questionnaire administered to the two study groups, who were asked to indicate the frequency of their participation in each activity (see Diagram 6).

Diagram 6 Part of the Questionnaire on After School Activities

	Almost every day	Once or twice a week	Once or twice a month	Less than once a month	Hardly ever or never do this
1. Going out with friends	✓				
2. Playing outdoor games like football, tennis, hockey, golf etc.		✓			
3. Playing indoor games like darts, cards, pool, snooker, etc.			✓		
etc.					

(See Appendix 3 for complete questionnaire).

(iv) "Testing" Procedures

The pupils were tested by the researcher in small groups (beginning on 1st May 1978) to ensure that they understood the questions and were carefully following the instructions laid down in the appropriate manuals. Since previous experience had shown the researcher the difficulty that many pupils have in understanding how to complete Part I of the Crowley Occupational Interests Blank a standardized explanation was given to every pupil. In addition, the questionnaires had to be read to some of the remedial pupils. Class size groups would have made it very difficult to have given this help. The "testing" situation was kept as similar as possible for each small group. The pupils were quite used to the researcher using interest inventories, career questionnaires and so on among them in pursuance of his guidance duties and the latest "testing" excited little comment from them. Before starting to complete the "instruments" the pupils were reassured that they were not tests and that there were no "right" or "wrong" answers.

Because of the concentration on small group testing and the demands which normal teaching and guidance duties placed on the researcher, the testing took over a month to complete. However, this also meant that pupils absent from school for one testing session could be easily incorporated into another group at a later date. The pupils who were tested later were asked to relate their answers on the leisure activities questionnaire to the start of the "testing" period when the weather was a little colder

and the evenings a little shorter. The purpose of the study was explained to all pupils and they were assured of confidentiality.

The same procedures were followed as closely as possible for the second test a year later but, because of increased absence, an extra twenty four half day openings were needed to complete the testing.

A table showing the total number of half days of absence for the poor attenders and their controls over the periods 25 August 1977 to 7 April 1978 and 21 August 1978 to 27 April 1979, with the possible number of attendances has been placed in the Appendix section 5.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

Summary

The purpose of the present study was to examine data from the two matched groups of respondents, viz 45 poor attenders and 45 good attenders (38 boys and 52 girls) over two school sessions. In the second session, numbers were reduced by 14, (eight boys and six girls). The results were prepared in five sections.

1. An examination/comparison of the distribution of both groups with respect to their absence rate in both sessions (see pp 92-97).
2. A comparison of the preferences of the poor attenders and the good attenders for different types of job, and the relationship of these choices to other variables (see pp 98-112).
3. A comparison of the matched subjects interest in the work itself (see pp 113-123).
4. The matched groups views on the atmosphere of the school (see pp 123-136).
5. A comparison, over two school sessions, of how often both groups participated in some out of school leisure pursuits (see pp 136-156).

SECTION I/

SECTION 1 ABSENCE RATE IN SESSIONS 1977-78 and 1978-79

Information relating to the number of absences for the two groups is shown in Table 45 (see Appendix) as the total number of half days of absence in both sessions, the possible attendances, percentage absence, stages and classes of the pupils and which matched pairs were unavailable for testing in the second session.

As might be expected, there was a high degree of association between absence rates in 1977-78 and 1978-79.

TABLE 12 Distribution of pupils with respect to absence rate in sessions 1977-78 and 1978-79

Sessions	1978-79					
	Absence rate Variable	More than 20% (Ni)	(%)	Less than 20% (Nii)	(%)	N P-level
1977-78	Poor attenders	28	71.8	11	28.2	39 0.001
	Good attenders	4	10.3	35	89.7	39

Chi square = 28.03, Degrees of freedom = 1, N = Ni + Nii

Statistical Techniques

The statistical test for possible significance of the observed differences between absence frequencies was the Chi-square modified by Yates correction for continuity (Guilford and Fruchter 1973, p204). The significance level set for rejection of the assumption that there was no association was the 0.05 level.

As Table 12 shows, a significant majority of the chosen poor attenders group were still poor attenders in the next session(4).

(4) Tyerman (1968) considered that pupils who had more than 20 per cent absence rate were poor attenders.

Since the general trend in most studies was for pupils' absences to increase as they approach school leaving age (see Chapter 2, page 40), it was also expected that the poor attenders would show increased absence rates in the second session. However, Table 12 shows that some poor attenders had reduced absence rates in the second session with more than a quarter now in the "good" category while conversely a number of good attenders showed increased absence rates.

The reasons for these changes are not easy to establish. It is, for example, possible that an anti-truancy programme by Attendance officers and school guidance staff may have had an effect on some poor attenders. The deteriorating attendance of the formerly "good" group, however required some other explanation. Other studies (e.g. N.A.C.E.W.O. 1974; Fogelman and Richardson 1974; Tyerman 1972; Pack Report (1977) and the D.E.S. (1974) one day survey) have remarked that attendance deteriorates as children move through secondary school and have related this to various factors such as sex (secondary school girls were said to be more frequently absent than boys), differences in school class etc. The numbers in the present study are rather small to make definitive analysis possible but, nevertheless, do not appear to favour any such hypotheses. Taking a change of +/- 10 absences to denote "worse" or "better" attendance than in the previous year we find that 8/16 = 50% of male poor attenders and 10/23 = 43% of female, were now "worse" as were 10/16 = 62.5% of male and 7/33 = 30% of female good attenders.

TABLE 13 DISTRIBUTION OF MATCHED PAIRS BY SEX

State in 1977-78	Good attenders absences			
	Boys	Getting worse	Getting better	Same	
Poor attenders absences	getting worse	6 (38%)	0	2(12%)	8
	getting better	3 (18%)	2 (12%)	2 (12%)	7
	same	1 (6%)	0	0	1
	Girls				
	getting worse	5 (30%)	0	5 (30%)	10
	getting better	0	1 (6%)	6 (38%)	7
	same	2 (12%)	0	4 (24%)	6

The importance of school class groupings to pupils' school attendance, especially as they get older is well documented (Reid 1984; Tyerman 1972; Fogelman and Richardson 1974) and it was therefore possible to assume that the changes in absence rates noted in Table 12 were due to differences in school class. Unfortunately the present limited data presents mixed evidence.

TABLE 14 Distribution of matched pairs by school class

	Good attenders' absences		
	(From stage S2 to mixed certificate/non-certificate classes in Stage S3)		
	getting worse	getting better	same
Poor attenders' absences — getting worse	2 (11.1%)	1 (5.5%)	3 (16.6%)
Poor attenders' absences — getting better	2 (11.1%)	2 (11.1%)	5 (27.7%)
Poor attenders' absences — same	1 (5.5%)	0	2 (11.1%)
	(From Stage S3 to Stage S4, certificate classes to certificate classes)		
Poor attenders' absences — getting worse	2 (22.2%)	0	2 (22.2%)
Poor attenders' absences — getting better	1 (11.1%)	0	2 (22.2%)
Poor attenders' absences — same	1 (11.1%)	0	1 (11.1%)
	(From Stage S3 to Stage S4, non-certificate classes to non-certificate classes)		
Poor attenders' absences — getting worse	7 (58.3%)	0	2 (16.6%)
Poor attenders' absences — getting better	1 (8.3%)	0	1 (8.3%)
Poor attenders' absences — same	1 (8.3%)	0	0

Table 14 shows that there was little difference between the changes in the youngest matched pairs' absence rate as they progressed from common course classes into mixed certificate / non-certificate classes. Separating out the poor and good attenders, however, shows a different picture. We see that 6/18 or 33.3% of the poor attenders and 5/18 or 27.7% of the good attenders "got worse" in their absence rate over the year. Some of these children were in the lower ability ranges and their choice of subjects in stage S3 was very limited. It is possible that their stage S3 couse did not entirely suit them and that this may have reduced further their motivation to attend. Also, the increased attention to truancy paid by guidance staff etc (already mentioned) was not directed at the youngest pupils.

The older pupils' results are also interesting. It was assumed that lower levels of absence rates would pertain in the certificate classes (Ralphson 1973). However Table 14 shows that nearly a quarter of the matched pairs (but still only 2) "got worse" in their absence rate over the year. The separation of poor and good attenders also shows the opposite to that expected. We see that 4/9 or 44.4% of the poor attenders and an equal percentage of the good attenders' "got worse" over the year.

It was to be expected that absence rates would get worse in non-certificate classes (Tyerman 1972) and this was the case for over half of the matched pairs (but still only 7) This was also the case for three quarters of the poor attenders (9/12) and three quarters of the good attenders (9/12) when they were separated out.

Table 14 shows that the absence rate of many poor attenders "got worse" over the year, and Table 12 shows that nearly three quarters of the poor attenders in S3 were still poor attenders in S4. However, while Table 14 shows that many of the good attenders in S3 had increased absence rates in S4, Table 12 shows that nearly 90% of the good attenders were still considered to be good attenders in S4. Thus, despite their increased absence rate over the year many good attenders in S3 were still classified in the "good" category in S4. (Only four good attenders were no longer in the "good" category by S4, one of whom had been ill).

A study of the S4 class registers suggested that there was a general increase in the level of absence over the whole year and it would appear likely that age was a main cause of worsening attendance. This is in line with other findings,(including Pack Report 1977; Mitchell and Shepherd 1980; Reid 1983d?) that patterns of truancy and absence rates increase with age.

We now go on to examine what apart from age may be having an effect. This will be the subject of the next sections.

SECTION 2

THE PUPILS' VIEW OF THEIR FUTURE IN TERMS OF PREFERENCE FOR DIFFERENT TYPES OF JOBS

In this section, the matched pairs' preferences for different types of job were examined and comparisons made. The jobs available for choice were drawn from the four basic areas of occupational activity, i.e. active/outdoor, office, social, practical and artistic jobs.

The hypothesis presented for test in the null form was that there was no difference between poor and good attenders in their job activity preferences.

The raw data was obtained by administering the "Crowley Occupational Interests Blank" (see appendix I.). This consists of 25 squares, with each group of five squares containing jobs drawn from one particular area and was completed in accordance with the manual instructions (ranking the job preferences 5,4,3,2 and 1 with the first choice being 5, by columns and rows, maximum score being 25.)

Finally, the pupils were asked to write down the names of any three jobs they would most like to do without being restricted to the choice available on the Blank.

The results are presented in the following manner:

1. Tables showing comparisons of the mean scores of both groups on the five job areas with probability levels. Comparison is also made with Crowley's manual results where possible.

2./

2. Tables showing the distribution of both groups' interest in type of job, area.

3. Table showing the direction of the pupils' free range of job choices compared to that indicated by the C.O.I.B. grid.

4. Table showing correlations between the poor attenders first and second scores on the five job areas.

Statistical Techniques

The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-ranks test was chosen to find the two-tail probability associated with the occurrence under the null hypothesis (equal to or less than = 0.05) as the study employed two matched groups and the Crowley Blank yields difference scores able to be ranked in order of magnitude (Siegal 1956).

The Spearman rank correlation coefficient was chosen to measure any association between the variables, i.e. poor attenders' first and second scores on the five job areas, as those variables were measured in ordinal scale and lend themselves to ranking. It also included a test of significance.

Pupils' preferences for different types of job

The Crowley Blank yields scores which indicate the strength of interest in a particular job area; the higher the score the greater the interest. It seemed obvious that a comparison of the matched pairs' scores would give some indication of any differing interest in that particular job area (see Table 15).

TABLE 15

Comparison of the poor attender (P.A.) and good attender (G.A.) groups' interests in 5 areas of occupational activity (mean scores)

	INITIAL TEST				
	MEAN		STAND.DEV.		P-LEVEL
Variable	P.A. N=46	G.A. N=46	P.A.	G.A.	(2 tail)
Active/ Outdoor	27.8	29.5	9.1	9.2	0.312
Office	30.3	32.5	9.9	10.4	0.322
Social	28.5	29.4	7.8	7.0	0.190
Practical	34.9	32.9	8.4	11.1	0.056
Artistic	28.5	25.9	8.6	7.4	0.131
	SECOND TEST				
Variable	N=39	N=39			
Active/ Outdoor	28.1	29.3	9.9	8.5	0.528
Office	29.9	32.1	9.7	11.0	0.401
Social	30.3	30.3	7.9	6.6	0.896
Practical	33.6	32.1	8.9	11.6	0.141
Artistic	28.0	26.4	8.6	7.5	0.423

An examination of Table 15 indicates that, for the group as a whole, the interests of the poor attenders in the five areas of job activity were not significantly different from those of the good attenders and that this was so for both tests. One of the interesting features of the table is the little change in both groups choice of job area (as measured by mean scores) from one year to the next. It may be deduced that the pupils in the sample had, early on, fairly accurate views about the kind of job areas that interested them. Another and related interesting feature of the table shows that for both the poor attender and good attender, over both tests, the <u>most</u> popular job area was the practical area. The office area was also popular with the good attenders in both tests. These results may have had some relevance in the context of the make-up and content of some school courses etc., but even more information on this was gained by looking at the results for boys and girls separately. There was, for example, a noticeable difference (some of which could have been anticipated) between the boys' and girls' interest in some job areas, and between the male and female poor and good attenders' interests.

Table 16 shows that for the boys, the interests of the poor attenders in the five areas of job activity were not significantly different from those of the good attenders and that this was so for both tests. Over the two tests, the <u>most</u> important job area interest for both groups of boys was the <u>practical</u> area, with the means for both/

TABLE 16 Comparison of the male poor attender (P.A.) and good attender (G.A.) group's interests in 5 areas of occupational activity (mean scores), shown with Crowley's sample.

CROWLEY SAMPLE (BOYS N= 600)		
VARIABLE	MEAN	STAND. DEV.
Active/Outdoor	27.6	8.4
Office	29.6	11.9
Social	24.2	6.7
Practical	35.9	8.6
Artistic	32.5	7.6

INITIAL TEST					
VARIABLE	P.A. N=20	G.A. N=20	P.A.	G.A.	P-LEVEL (2 tail)
Active/Outdoor	35.1	35.6	5.9	7.2	0.741
Office	26.8	25.8	7.7	6.3	0.447
Social	22.8	24.4	6.2	5.9	0.603
Practical	42.8	43.4	5.7	5.2	0.674
Artistic	22.6	21.4	5.5	6.0	0.589

SECOND TEST					
VARIABLE	P.A. N=16	G.A. N=16	P.A.	G.A.	P-LEVEL (2 tail)
Active/Outdoor	34.7	35.3	7.8	6.3	0.849
Office	26.6	25.1	6.6	7.1	0.368
Social	23.1	24.9	5.3	4.9	0.258
Practical	42.3	43.9	5.7	5.8	0.322
Artistic	23.2	20.8	7.5	6.6	0.459

both groups being very similar. This was also the most important area for the boys of Crowley's sample (note that their mean score was less than both the matched pairs' score). The second most important interest for both the poor and good attenders was the active/outdoor area with the means for both groups being very similar over both tests (note that for Crowley's sample, the active/outdoor area was the second least important area). Also noteworthy was the low interest paid by both the poor and good attenders, over both tests, to the artistic area and the comparatively high interest paid to this area by Crowley's sample. While it might be expected that there would be a high preference for outdoor work, for example, in a rural area such as "Devorgilla", it should be noted that Crowley's sample was drawn from both urban and rural backgrounds and that different areas scores were compared and no significant differences were found. The point that is being made lies in the closeness of the male poor and good attenders' interests compared to that of Crowley's sample. Let us examine this in a different way.

Table (17) Distribution of type of job area interest favoured by MALE poor and good attenders (highest score)

	Active/ Outdoor	Office	Social	Practical	Artistic
First test					
P.A. N=20	4.5(22.5%)	1(5%)	0.5(2.5%)	14(70%)	0
G.A. N=20	4 (20%)	0	0	16(80%)	0
Second test					
P.A. N=16	3.5(22%)	1(6%)	0	11.5(72%)	0
G.A. N=16	3 (19%)	0	0	12 (75%)	1(6%)

The data shows clearly that the proportions of the poor and good attenders favouring the active/outdoor and the practical areas were very similar over both tests and demonstrate a consistent interest by the boys in these two areas of work. It may well also demonstrate their sense of realism since these job areas contain the occupations (unskilled jobs for example) most open to them, at that time, as Junior High School pupils who would leave school with little or no qualifications.

Table 17 shows clearly what aspects of their school course would be considered most suitable by the majority of both groups of boys and contained a clear message for those teachers responsible for the school curriculum.

We now examine the girls' results, again using a comparison with a Crowley's sample of girls.

An examination of Table 18 indicates that, for the girls, there was a significant difference in interest in practical/

TABLE (18) Comparison of the female poor attender (P.A.) and good attender (G.A.) groups' interests in 5 areas of occupational activity (mean scores), shown with Crowley's sample.

CROWLEY SAMPLE (GIRLS N= 606)		
VARIABLE	MEAN	STAND. DEV.
Active/Outdoor	21.8	7.5
Office	33.8	9.1
Social	34.1	6.2
Practical	23.2	5.5
Artistic	36.7	6.0

INITIAL TEST					
VARIABLE	P.A. N=26	G.A. N=26	P.A.	G.A.	P-LEVEL (2 tail)
Active/Outdoor	22.2	24.8	6.8	7.6	0.368
Office	32.9	36.7	10.8	9.9	0.167
Social	32.9	33.3	5.8	5.0	0.865
Practical	28.9	24.8	3.9	6.6	0.003
Artistic	33.0	29.4	7.9	6.4	0.128

SECOND TEST					
VARIABLE	P.A. N=23	G.A. N=23	P.A.	G.A.	P-LEVEL (2 tail)
Active/Outdoor	23.5	25.0	8.5	7.3	0.880
Office	32.3	36.9	10.8	10.8	0.136
Social	35.3	34.0	4.8	4.9	0.509
Practical	27.6	23.8	4.8	6.0	0.009
Artistic	31.3	30.3	7.8	5.3	0.673

practical jobs between the matched groups over both tests. The poor attenders appeared to show more interest than the good attenders in that area of jobs which required making, assembling and repairing etc. While the poor attenders showed more interest in the practical area than the girls in Crowley's sample, the good attenders' interest (as shown by the mean scores) was much more akin to the Crowley sample. It should be noted, however, that the practical area was not the most important job area interest for any of the three groups. For Crowley's girls and for the poor attenders on the first test the most important area was the artistic one (but very similar to that of office and social). For both the matched pairs, in the second test, the two most important areas were the office and social ones (also the case for the good attenders in the first test). It is noteworthy that for these variables the means of all three groups were very similar. Like the boys, the interest of the female poor and good attenders on the active/outdoor, office, practical and artistic areas was maintained over both tests, demonstrating once more that they had fairly constant views on their job area interest. Although it was not a significant difference, it should be noted that, on both tests the mean score on the office area for the good attenders was rather higher than that of the poor attenders. It appears from the table that there was not the same closeness of the female poor and good attenders' interests in the variables that was noted for the boys. Despite this we examine the girls interests in a similar way to that of the boys.

TABLE (19) Distribution of type of job area interest favoured by female poor and good attenders (highest score)

	Active/ Outdoor	Office	Social	Practical	Artistic
First test					
P.A. N=26	1.5(5.8%)	7(27%)	10(38.2%)	0.5(2%)	7(27%)
G.A. N=26	0	14(54%)	9(35%)	1(3.7%)	2(7.3%)
Second test					
P.A. N=23	3(13%)	9(39%)	7(31%)	1(4%)	3(13%)
G.A. N=23	2(9%)	11(48%)	7.5(32%)	0.5(2%)	2(9%)

The data shows clearly that the proportions of the poor and good attenders favouring the office and social areas were very similar in the second test and also for the social area in the first test. Twice as many good attenders as poor attenders were interested in office type jobs in the first test, but by the second test, the proportions were more alike. The main point being made is that Table 19 shows the closeness of the female poor and good attenders' interests on all five job areas by the second test.

Two points will now be made about the Business Studies department of "Bailliol" school. The first is that there was a great deal of interest in the limited amount of places available (due to fixed numbers of machines etc.) in a popular department, and entry tests (spelling, letter writing etc.) had to be introduced as part of the decision-making procedures when course options for Stage S3 were completed. The second point is that for a number of the girls in both the non-certificate and certificate classes in Business Studies in Stage S4, work experience in some local offices was provided(for both the poor and good attenders). This proved to be very popular amongst the girls and may well have influenced the choice of a number of them

towards the office area although, even at that time, job opportunities were limited.

However, this does not mean that both the poor and good attenders were not realistic in their job choice. They were aware, for example, that many of their predecessors in "Bailliol" had gone on to jobs such as waitresses, shop assistants and a few as nurses (all in the social interest area). Also, unlike the boys (the majority of whom favoured mainly two job types) the female matched pairs showed a spread of interest among the variables by the second test (although the social and office areas were by far the most popular). The girls were also aware, due to careers service interviews, careers education work by the school guidance staff and visiting speakers, that some jobs such as hairdressing (artistic area), the forces and farm work (active/outdoor area) were available at that time.

When the girls' results (Table 19) were compared to those of the boys' results (Table 17) the difference between the interests of the two was striking (boys being more interested in active/outdoor and practical areas while the girls were more interested in social and office areas). Now, of course, a school should <u>not</u> provide differential training to the sexes to cope with such differences, but some attention should be paid by the school that these differences can exist and that pupils should have the opportunity to acquire the concepts, skills and information necessary to enable them to develop their own particular career interests.

In addition to asking the matched pairs to complete the grid of the Crowley Occupational Interests Blank, they were asked to write down the names of three jobs out of all those they had ever heard of, that they would most like to do. These three choices were classified

TABLE 20 Direction of 3 free range job choices (when considered in their interest area) in relation to that indicated by the C.O.I.B. grid completed by poor attenders (P.A.) and good attenders (G.A.).

INITIAL TEST					SECOND TEST				
All Pupils Choices	P.A.		G.A.		All Pupils Choices	P.A.		G.A.	
(92 x 3)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(78 x 3)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)
Agree	79	29	74	27	Agree	66	28	65	28
Disagree	59	21	64	23	Disagree	51	22	52	22
Boys' Choices (40 x 3)					Boys' Choices (32 x 3)				
Agree	41	34	39	32	Agree	28	29	34	35
Disagree	19	16	21	18	Disagree	20	21	14	15
Girls' Choices (52 x 3)					Girls' Choices (46 x 3)				
Agree	38	24	35	22	Agree	38	28	31	22
Disagree	40	26	43	28	Disagree	31	22	38	28

using the manual to the C.O.I.B., into their respective interests areas and a check was made to see if each choice agreed with the interest area indicated by the completion of the grid. This was done for both testings and the results are shown in Table 20. Note that each pupil had three choices, thus for the all pupils section of the Table, the total number of choices were 92 X 3 (i.e. the 46 poor attenders and the 46 good attenders each had three choices, 46 X 3 + 46 X 3 = 92 X 3).

It was noteworthy at the initial testing, how small the difference was between the poor and good attenders in the percentage agreeing and disagreeing with their grid choice. This closeness between the two groups continued in the second test.

However, it is disappointing to note that in both testings and for both sets of pupils, the percentage disagreeing with the grid choice was quite large. It might have been expected that with growing maturity and, hopefully, more knowledge about themselves and their interests that the percentage disagreeing, from both sets of pupils would have fallen in the second test.

The explanations for the high percentage of disagreement may well lie in a number of pupils having all-round job interests, or simply not knowing enough about the different jobs (perhaps a warning here for the quality of the careers education in school?) or if Liversidge's (1974) contentions are correct then many of the pupils may lack much positive interest.

To supplement the information already gained on whether any changes/

Table (21) Poor attenders' interests in 5 areas of occupational activity: correlations between their initial and second scores.

Variable	Poor attenders N = 39	P-Level (2 tail)
Active/Outdoor	0.398	0.018
Office	0.626	0.001
Social	0.695	0.001
Practical	0.778	0.001
Artistic	0.328	0.021
	BOYS N=16	
Active/Outdoor	0.069	0.399
Office	0.604	0.030
Social	0.467	0.062
Practical	0.248	0.177
Artistic	-0.123	0.325
	GIRLS N=23	
Active/Outdoor	0.013	0.477
Office	0.748	0.001
Social	0.526	0.024
Practical	0.302	0.081
Artistic	0.098	0.329

changes in responses had taken place over the year, an examination for any association between the poor attenders initial and final preferences for different areas of work was made. Correlations between the poor attenders' first and second scores are shown in Table 21.

Table 21 shows that for the male poor attenders and the female poor attenders there were significant positive associations between the initial test scores and final test scores (0.604 and 0.748 respectively) on that area of work requiring the use of words, figures, symbols, checking and calculating (i.e. "office items"). For the female poor attenders the Table also shows another significant positive association (0.526) between the first and second preferences for jobs dealing with people, helping, persuading, advising (i.e."social items").

It is of interest to note that Table 21 also shows that for the poor attenders as a group, there was a significant positive association between the two scores for all five areas of work. These illustrate a consistent interest by the poor attenders in these areas of work which may be a clear signal that they were realistic about their career capabilities. It also suggests that school could perhaps make use of the poor attenders' consistent interest in order to make their careers more relevant to them. This does not suggest, however, that school should be unaware of its responsibilities to bring a wider spectrum of job opportunities within all the pupils' focus (including the poor attenders).

In summary, it may be repeated that with one exception no differences were found between poor and good attenders in their job activity preferences and that the null hypothesis should be accepted. The exception lay in the significant difference in interest in practical jobs between the female poor and good attenders. It may also be stated that on many of the job activity areas, the the interests of the two groups of pupils were very similar.

SECTION 3

THE PUPILS PERCEPTION OF THE MAIN SOURCES OF WORK SATISFACTION

In this section, the matched pairs' views of the importance they attach to five sources of occupational satisfaction were examined and compared. These sources were financial gain (desire for money), stability/security (need for a secure environment), companionship (need for fellowship and company), working conditions (need for pleasant working facilities), interest (need to be interested in the job itself).

The hypothesis presented for test in the null form is that there was no difference between poor and good attenders in the importance that they attached to the five sources of occupational satisfaction already described.

As in Section 2, the raw data was obtained by means of the Crowley Occupational Interests Blank, the results were presented in a similar manner and the statistical techniques used were the same.

Table 22 indicates that for the group as a whole, the importance attached to the need for fellowship and company in a job by poor attenders was significantly different to that of the good attenders (but only for the first test). By the second test, there was no significant difference between the poor and good attenders in the importance that they attached to any of the five sources of job satisfaction. It is noticeable that, with one exception (companionship in the first test), the matched groups were very similar in their views (as measured by mean scores). It is also noticeable that the poor attenders were consistent in the factors that they regarded as the most important in job satisfaction - companionship and interest.

Table 22 Comparison of the poor attender (P.A.) and good attender (G.A.) groups' interests in 5 sources of occupational satisfaction (mean scores)

INITIAL TEST					
	MEAN		STAND DEV.		P-LEVEL
	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.	(2 tail)
Variable	N=46	N=46			
Financial Gain	3.59	4.02	1.80	1.97	0.246
Stability/Security	4.17	4.24	1.51	1.32	0.322
Companionship	4.87	4.26	1.52	1.69	0.039
Working Conditions	2.98	3.41	1.44	1.59	0.258
Interest	4.39	4.06	1.32	1.54	0.358
SECOND TEST					
Variable	N=39	N=39			
Financial Gain	3.28	3.54	1.84	1.86	0.529
Stability/Security	4.20	4.56	1.22	1.29	0.204
Companionship	4.28	4.36	1.43	1.81	0.897
Working Conditions	3.57	3.03	1.42	1.59	0.126
Interest	4.56	4.51	1.18	1.50	0.834

One of the interesting features over both tests is the relative unimportance (as measured by low mean score) attached by both groups of pupils to the desire for money. This tentatively supported Steedman and Fogelman's (1980) findings that secondary modern pupils did not put too high a priority on being well paid, perhaps because they were pessimistic, although in the "Bailliol" pupils' case it

was perhaps because they were realistic. Well paid jobs for young people in the "Devorgilla" area being noticeable by their absence.

It is noteworthy that, while the majority of the mid and low-ability pupils in Raby and Walford's (1981) study (who were said to display "considerable anti-work attitudes and opposition to school values") considered that most people only worked for the wage packet, they also did not regard the material rewards of work as very important. While nearly forty per cent of their pupils felt that "friendly people to work with" was important (as did the poor attenders in the present study), more than half of the pupils considered that a "safe and steady job" was most important of all.

In any comparison however, it must be remembered that Raby and Walford drew their pupils from a huge comprehensive school situated in a multi-racial urban area- a far cry from "Devorgilla".

We now look for any differences between the sexes, in the importance that they attached to various job satisfactions. Table 23 on the next page shows that for the boys there was a statistically significant difference between the poor and good attenders on the importance they attached to having pleasant working conditions, with the poor attenders more interested in this source of job satisfaction at the second test. However, with only one other exception (companionship) the table shows how close the views of the matched groups were (as measured by mean scores). It also illustrates how similar were the interests of both groups in their desire for money, when compared to Crowley's sample. It is interesting that Crowley's sample, the good attenders over both tests and the poor attenders in the first test regarded working conditions as the least important job satisfaction. To the pupils in Raby and Walford's (1981) study, the conditions of life attached to the work was of importance, for the/

TABLE 23 Comparison of the male poor attenders (P.A.) and good attenders (G.A.) groups' interests in 5 areas of occupational satisfaction (mean scores), shown with Crowley's sample.

CROWLEY SAMPLE (BOYS N = 600)		
VARIABLE	MEAN	STAND. DEV.
Financial gain	3.7	1.9
Stability/Security	3.9	1.6
Companionship	3.8	1.7
Working Conditions	3.0	1.4
Interest	5.5	1.6

INITIAL TEST					
VARIABLE	P.A. N=20	G.A. N=20	P.A.	G.A.	P-LEVEL (2 tail)
Financial Gain	4.45	4.80	1.32	2.02	0.610
Stability/Security	3.90	3.90	1.45	1.41	0.711
Companionship	4.35	3.80	1.31	1.76	0.165
Working Conditions	2.75	3.50	1.41	1.67	0.246
Interest	4.55	4.00	1.43	1.65	0.373

SECOND TEST					
VARIABLE	P.A. N=16	G.A. N=16	P.A.	G.A.	P-LEVEL (2 tail)
Financial Gain	4.06	3.88	1.98	2.03	0.704
Stability/Security	4.06	4.31	1.24	1.25	0.401
Companionship	3.62	4.25	1.20	1.81	0.322
Working Conditions	4.06	2.75	1.12	1.39	0.020
Interest	4.19	4.81	1.11	1.60	0.250

the majority of them wanted to avoid such things as hard work, long hours and shift work. For Crowley's sample, for the good attenders on the second test and for the poor attenders on both tests, the most important factor in job satisfaction, was interest in the job itself. This positive interest in the work is of importance to the school for it suggests, for example, that the poor attenders could be motivated by what jobs offer in terms of interest and training.

An examination of the proportions of the boys favouring each type of job satisfaction will now be made.(See Table 24, p118).

This Table makes clear that, while there was a spread of interest among the five types of job satisfaction, the two most dominant were financial gain and interest. (Of the sixteen year old boys investigated by Fogelman (1979) 24.5 per cent said that the most important factor in choosing a job was that it should be well paid, and 18.6 per cent said that they considered that "the job should involve variety" as most important.) The proportions of the poor and good attenders in the present study most interested in financial gain and interest were very similar over both tests, and in both cases higher than Fogelman's pupils. This was also the case for stability/security in both tests and companionship in the first test. In the second test the proportion of the poor attenders who favoured companionship fell and the proportion who favoured working conditions rose (i.e. more like Raby and Walford's pupils), while the good attenders showed the reverse. Interest in the other types of job satisfaction remained more consistent in both groups. Note that the proportion of the poor attenders who favoured stability/security had risen to one in five in the final test. This is interesting in the light of Raby and Walford's (1981) findings (discussed previously) that the majority of their pupils saw a "safe and steady job" as being very important. It is also/

Table (24) Distribution of the importance attached by MALE poor and good attenders (highest score) to the five job satisfactions.

	Financial gain	Stability/ Security	Companionship	Working Conditions	Interest
First Test					
P.A. N = 20	6.5 (32.5%)	2.3 (11.5%)	3.85 (19.25%)	0.5 (2.5%)	6.85 (34.25%)
G.A. N = 20	7 (35%)	2.9 (14.5%)	3.3 (16.5%)	2.3 (11.5%)	4.5 (22.5%)
Second Test					
P.A. N = 16	5.5 (34.5%)	3 (19%)	1.5 (9%)	2.5 (15.5%)	3.5 (22%)
G.A. N = 16	4.5 (28%)	2 (12.6%)	4 (25%)	1 (6.4%)	4.5 (28%)

(Note that equal proportions were allowed for equal preferences i.e. three equal preferences, 0.3 each etc.)

also of interest for school, since two of the statements which represent this source of satisfaction that a number of poor attenders saw as important were "work proceeds at a nice steady pace" and "there are never any problems". For example, in how many classes might the pace of the lessons be too fast or the quality of the work be too hard for the poor attender? It is possible that some of the absences of poor attenders arose because they had problems at school that they could not deal with. A good relationship with a guidance teacher, some one to take their problems to, might benefit some poor attenders and perhaps bring a favourable response (Reid 1983).

We now look at the girls' results.

An examination of Table 25 indicates that, for the girls, the interests of the poor attenders in the various job satisfactions were not significantly different from those of the good attenders and that this was so for both tests. It is clear from Table 25 that similarly to the boys, the girls of both groups did not give good pay a high priority (neither did Crowley's sample). This was unlike the pupils of Steedman and Fogelman's (1980) study where, on this factor, the boys and girls differed. They found that girls were less likely to give priority to a job being well paid. In the present study not only is there a closeness between the sexes on financial gain but also between the poor and good attenders. It is clear also that both groups held a consistent view on the unimportance of this factor. In the light of the limited job opportunities available in the "Devorgilla" area, this may have been just as well in the circumstances - and, perhaps again illustrated the realism of both groups.

It/

Table (25) Comparison of the FEMALE poor attenders (P.A.) and good attenders (G.A.) groups' interest in 5 areas of occupational satisfaction (mean scores) shown with Crowley's sample.

CROWLEY'S SAMPLE (GIRLS N= 606)					
VARIABLE	MEAN		STAND. DEV.		
Financial Gain	3.1		1.7		
Stability/security	3.7		1.6		
Companionship	4.3		1.7		
Working Conditions	3.3		1.5		
Interest	5.5		1.5		
INITIAL TEST					
	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.	P-LEVEL
Variable	N=26	N=26			(2 tail)
Financial Gain	2.92	3.42	1.85	1.75	0.308
Stability/Security	4.38	4.50	1.55	1.21	0.704
Companionship	5.27	4.62	1.56	1.58	0.099
Working Conditions	3.15	3.35	1.46	1.55	0.610
Interest	4.27	4.12	1.25	1.48	0.522
SECOND TEST					
Variable	N=23	N=23			
Financial Gain	2.74	3.30	1.54	1.74	0.194
Stability/Security	4.30	4.74	1.22	1.32	0.168
Companionship	4.74	4.43	1.42	1.85	0.509
Working Conditions	3.39	3.22	1.56	1.73	0.719
Interest	4.83	4.30	1.19	1.43	0.246

It is noteworthy that both groups of girls were more alike in giving less importance to interest in the job itself than those in Crowley's sample. It is also of interest that while the poor attenders gave companionship more priority than the good attenders on the first test, they were much more like them in the second, and closer to Crowley's sample (as measured by mean scores).

It can be seen here then that the views of both groups of girls were much alike in the importance they gave to a number of types of job satisfactions. An examination of the proportions of the girls favouring each job satisfaction will now be made.

Table 26 shows that among the girls, there was a spread of interest over the five types of job satisfactions on both tests. They considered that the two most important factors were stability/security and interest (this was also the case for the boys). Unlike the boys, however, the most dominant factor for both groups of girls was companionship at work. Again this is of interest to the school. Many girls agreed that they did not like to work alone and that the working atmosphere had to be friendly.

Similarly to the boys, a reasonable measure of consistent agreement was noticeable between the matched groups on a number of factors. (Interest and stability/security, for example). It was difficult to provide a comparison with the sixteen year old girls in Fogelman's (1979) study since he used rather different factors. However, 25.4 per cent of the girls he studied considered that "the job should involve variety" as most important, 20.3 per cent suggested that "it should give you the opportunity of helping others" as most important and that 16.9 per cent felt that "it should be well paid" was the important factor. Over both tests, it was noted that the proportion/

Table (26) Distribution of the importance attached by FEMALE poor and good attenders (highest score) to the five job satisfactions.

	Financial gain	Stability/ Security	Companionship	Working Conditions	Interest
First Test					
P.A. N = 26	2.8 (11%)	6.2 (23.7%)	11.2 (43%)	1.3 (5%)	4.5 (17.3%)
G.A. N = 26	4 (15.3%)	5 (19%)	8 (31%)	3 (11.5%)	6 (23%)
Second Test					
P.A. N = 23	1.8 (8%)	5.2 (22.4%)	7.7 (33.4%)	2.5 (11%)	5.8 (25.2%)
G.A. N = 23	3 (13%)	6 (26%)	6.7 (29%)	1.8 (8%)	5.5 (24%)

(Note that equal preferences were allowed i.e. 5 equal preferences, 0.2 each etc.)

proportion of "Bailliol's" poor attenders most interested in financial gain was lower than that of Fogelman's girls.

In summary for the boys it may be repeated that with one exception, there was no difference between poor and good attenders in their job satisfaction choices, and that the null hypothesis should be accepted. The exception was a significant difference in the greater importance placed by poor attenders on having pleasant working conditions. It was also noted how similar the views of the two groups were on the five factors especially when compared to Crowley's sample.

There was no difference between female poor and good attenders in their job satisfaction choices and the null hypothesis was accepted. There appeared to be a spread of interest among both types of girls on the satisfaction sources and on a number of them, a similar interest.

SECTION 4 THE PUPILS' VIEWS OF THE ATMOSPHERE OF THE SCHOOL

This section examines the relationship between absence and the pupils' perception of the school "climate" to test the hypothesis that the bad attenders will have less favourable perceptions than their matched pairs. The relevant information was obtained by administering Finlayson's School Climate Index (see Appendix 2) which covers such characteristics as emotional tone and task orientation (relating to pupil behaviour), concern and social control (relating to teacher behaviour).

In completing Finlayson's Index, the matched groups were required to place themselves on an attitude continuum with respect to each statement making up each of the four characteristics (a total of 34 statements). Possible choices ranged from "strongly agree" to "agree","uncertain","disagree", and "strongly disagree".

For scoring purposes these positions were given simple weights (from four to zero, the direction of the scoring being dependent on the positive or negative wording of the items) as indicated in the manual. A high score indicated a positive task orientation and emotional tone and a high degree of concern and democratic control.

The results are presented in the following manner:

1. Comparisons of the mean scores of both groups' perceptions of the four aspects with probability levels, accompanied by Finlaysons' manual results where possible.
2. The distribution of both groups' perceptions of the four aspects.
3. The changes in absence rate over the two sessions of those poor attenders with a high perception of certain aspects of school climate.

NOTE (The tables show boys and girls results, separately and combined).

Statistical Techniques The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed - ranks test (as previously described)

The pupils view of the atmosphere of the school An examination of Table (27)indicates that, for the group as a whole, the perceptions of the poor attenders on the four aspects of school climate were not significantly different from those of the good attenders and that this was so for both tests. This is unlike Wilcox's (1976) study of mixed pupils (drawn from five schools) where/

Table (27) Comparison of the poor attender (P.A.) and good attender (G.A.) groups' perception of four aspects of school climate (mean scores)

	FINLAYSON SAMPLE (N = 978)				
Variable	MEAN		STAND. DEV.		
Emotional Tone	16.09		4.89		
Concern	17.59		4.77		
Social Control	21.91		4.87		
Task Orientation	17.52		6.26		
	INITIAL TEST				
	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.	P-LEVEL
Variable	N=46	N=46			(2 tail)
Emotional Tone	11.5	13.1	5.1	4.1	0.103
Concern	20.7	20.2	6.0	5.5	0.568
Social Control	16.2	16.7	5.6	5.5	0.638
Task Orientation	15.5	16.3	5.6	5.9	0.549
	SECOND TEST				
Variable	N=39	N=39			
Emotional Tone	13.5	12.4	6.1	4.7	0.741
Concern	21.5	19.4	5.3	5.6	0.230
Social Control	17.8	17.6	6.3	6.1	0.928
Task Orientation	16.5	15.5	6.2	4.8	0.575

where significant differences between attenders and non-attenders were found in emotional tone, task orientation and social control. However, she also noted that there were differences in perceptions of school climate between the schools. Again in contrast to the present work, Kavanagh and Carroll's (1977) study of fourth year pupils from three comprehensive schools, indicated that poor attenders differed significantly from good and moderate attenders in their perceptions of emotional tone, concern and social control. However, their sample of pupils differed from the present one in including above average pupils as well as those of average or below average ability.

It is interesting that the views of the matched pairs (as measured by mean scores) were often closer to each other than to Finlayson's sample (which was drawn from fourth year pupils of both sexes from a range of comprehensive schools in varying geographical locations). The mean scores on task orientation, for example, suggest that neither the poor nor good attenders did accept the tasks set by the school as readily as Finlayson's sample. This is of concern to the school for it suggests lack of success in the efforts of the staff to convince the pupils that the academic activities of their "bottom tier" school was of some value to them. Because of their placing in the "two tier" system, the poor attenders (and their controls) may well have experienced a low expectation of academic success (cf. Reid 1983d?).

It is noticeable too how much lower the means of the matched groups were when compared to Finlaysons sample on social control. This suggests that both the poor and good attenders in "Bailliol" considered that their teachers were somewhat restrictive in their/

their class control and perhaps insistent on pupil compliance. If true, this teacher attitude may have been partly due to the pupils' attitude to their classwork (when not done or not done well enough, authority would have to be exerted) and perhaps also because they dealt, in the main, with comparatively non-academic pupils.

Another worrying aspect for the school is the low mean scores of both groups in emotional tone (when compared to Finlaysons' sample). This suggests that neither the poor or good attenders derived satisfaction from participating in the school's activities. To those pupils already prone to absence, this feeling could not have helped to motivate them to attend.

Much more encouraging for the school are the high mean scores of both the matched groups (higher than Finlayson's sample) on concern. These suggest that the poor and good attenders considered that their teachers were sensitive to their needs at both (the) personal and (the) work level. It seems only common sense that in classes where teachers offered this type of support, attendance should improve. In Moos and Moos (1978) study of the social environment of 19 American high school classes, it was suggested that classes with a high pupil absenteeism rate had high pupil competition and teacher control and <u>little</u> teacher support. However, it must be noted that it was <u>teachers'</u> perceptions of classrooms with low teacher support that they used.

We now look for any differences between the sexes, in their perceptions of the various aspects of school climate.

Table (28) shows that for the <u>boys</u>, in the first test, there is a statistically significant difference between the poor and good/

Table (28) Comparison of the MALE poor attender (P.A.) and good attender (G.A.) groups' perception of four aspects of school climate (mean scores)

	INITIAL TEST				
	MEAN P.A.	G.A.	STAND DEV. P.A.	G.A.	P-LEVEL (2 tail)
Variable	N=20	N=20			
Emotional Tone	10.0	13.0	5.0	3.9	0.028
Concern	20.6	20.9	5.5	5.1	0.646
Social Control	16.0	15.8	5.9	5.4	0.936
Task Orientation	15.1	15.9	4.7	5.4	0.795
	SECOND TEST				
Variable	N=16	N=16			
Emotional Tone	11.8	11.0	6.5	3.8	0.412
Concern	20.2	19.0	5.4	5.3	0.734
Social Control	16.7	15.8	6.5	5.1	0.704
Task Orientation	17.1	15.2	5.9	4.8	0.453

good attenders' view of emotional tone which suggests that poor attenders may get less social and emotional satisfaction from participating in school activities etc. However, any such difference disappeared as they grew older, and it was seen that by the second test their views on this aspect were very similar (as measured by mean scores) i.e. both groups of boys were deriving less emotional satisfaction from their school environment. There is a clear message here for the school. This lack of pupil satisfaction could, perhaps, lead to eventual alienation of these pupils from school and further discourage their attendance (Reid, 1981).

An examination of the proportions of the boys stressing each aspect of school climate will now be made.

Table 29 illustrates that the aspect of school climate rated most highly by the majority of both groups of boys over both tests was concern. The matched pairs obviously believed that their teachers were sympathetic to their task and social/emotional needs. Surely, if no other factors were at work such pupils would be more likely to be satisfied with school and their attendance would be less likely to be affected. Eaton and Houghton (1974) for example found that the male persistent absentees in their study (from secondary modern schools) were not as satisfied as the regular attenders that their "expressive" needs were met. (Expressive needs included ease/emotional security etc.)

TABLE 29 Distribution of the MALE poor and good attenders' perceptions of the four aspects of school climate (highest score)

First Test	Emotional Tone	Concern	Social Control	Task Orientation
P.A. N = 20	0	15.5 (77.5%)	3 (15%)	1.5 (7.5%)
G.A. N = 20	0	16 (80%)	3 (15%)	1 (5%)
Second Test				
P.A. N = 16	0	8 (50%)	4 (25%)	4 (25%)
G.A. N = 16	0.5(3.2%)	10 (62.5%)	3.5 (21.8%)	2 (12.5%)

NOTE: that these are the items for which the pupils expressed the greatest preference and that equal proportions were allowed for equal preferences, i.e. two equal preferences 0.5 each.

Another noteworthy feature of Table 29 is the relatively low scores of both groups of boys with respect to emotional tone - shown as only half a vote over both sessions. Both matched groups clearly perceived a low degree of social and emotional satisfaction from participation (in themselves and in their peers), in school activities. This could have reflected a low commitment to their " bottom tier " school which in turn could well have affected their school attendance. Lastly, it was not without interest to the school that the scales on which the boys' perceptions were most positive were mainly teacher behaviour scales.

As far as the girls were concerned, Table 30 indicates that the perceptions of the poor attenders on the four aspects of school climate were not significantly different from those of the good attenders and that this was so for both tests.

Similarly/

Table 39 Comparison of the FEMALE poor attender (P.A.) and good attender (G.A.) groups' perception of four aspects of school climate (mean score)

	INITIAL TEST				
	MEAN		STAND. DEV.		P-LEVEL
	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.	(2 tail)
Variable	N=26	N=26			
Emotional Tone	12.6	13.2	4.5	4.3	0.687
Concern	20.8	19.7	6.4	5.9	0.497
Social Control	16.4	17.5	5.6	5.5	0.497
Task Orientation	15.8	16.5	6.3	6.4	0.697
	SECOND TEST				
Variable	N=23	N=23			
Emotional Tone	14.6	13.3	5.6	5.1	0.477
Concern	22.4	19.6	5.1	6.0	0.093
Social Control	18.6	18.8	6.1	6.4	0.787
Task Orientation	16.0	15.6	6.4	5.0	0.777

Similarly to the boys, the two scales on which the girls expressed a high positive perception (as measured by high mean scores) were the teacher behaviour scales, concern and social control. Both groups of girls however expressed a more positive view on the social and emotional satisfaction they and their peers were getting from the school.

An examination of the proportions of the girls rating each aspect of school climate will now be made.

(See Table 31).

Table 31. Distribution of the FEMALE poor and good attenders' perceptions of the four aspects of school climate (highest score)

	Emotional Tone	Concern	Social Control	Task Orientation
First Test				
P.A. N=26	1 (3.8%)	18.5 (71.3%)	5 (19.2%)	1.5 (5.7%)
G.A. N=26	0	16.85 (64.8%)	6.3 (24.2%)	2.85 (11%)
Second Test				
P.A. N=23	0	17.5 (76%)	3 (13%)	2.5 (11%)
G.A. N=23	0	10.5 (45.6%)	10 (43.4%)	2.5 (11%)

(Note that equal proportions were allowed for equal preferences, i.e. three equal preferences, 0.3 each)

Table 31 shows that, similarly to the boys, concern was the aspect of school climate rated most highly by the majority of both groups of girls over both tests. However, unlike the boys, by the time of the second test, practically an equal proportion of the female good attenders also expressed a high positive perception of social control (which was three times greater than that of the poor attenders) and which was twice that of the first test. It was difficult to find any reason for this. It can only be reported that by that time a pupil/teacher school council had been organised with two pupil (1 boy, 1 girl) representatives for every year, elected by a proper vote.

It appears from the Table that both groups of girls considered that they obtained little emotional satisfaction from the school (as did the boys). The one girl who did stress this aspect came from a very disturbed background, she was in the care of both the child guidance psychologist and the social work department. The psychologist suggested that some of her teachers thought more highly of her than her own mother did. She eventually was placed in care and was not available for testing in the second test.

In the light of the high perceptions on concern and social control (by both girls and boys) it is interesting to note that Wilcox (1976) found a significant difference between boys and girls on those scales, with the girls less positive.

We now look at the changes in absence rate over the two tests of those female poor attenders who had a high perception of concern and social control.

Table 32/

Table 32 Changes in absence rate for those FEMALE poor attenders with a high perception of the concern and social control aspects of school climate.

	Getting worse	Getting better	Same
Concern			
P.A. N=17.5	9	5	3.5
Social Control			
P.A. N=3	0	2	1

Table 32 shows mixed evidence. More than half of those girls who had a high positive perception of their teachers' interest in them were attending less often by the second test, but on the other hand more than a quarter's attendance was becoming better. The Table suggests that a number of girls, who, even though they considered that their teachers showed concern for them, became even worse attenders and might have been affected by other factors.

In summary for the group as a whole, girls over both tests and for the boys in the second test, it may be repeated that there was no difference between poor and good attenders in their perceptions of the four aspects of school climate. This was seen to be different from Wilcox's sample where differences between attenders and non-attenders were found on emotional tone, task orientation and social control. The views of the matched groups at "Bailliol" school were seen to be closer to each other than to Finlayson's sample on all aspects of school climate. For both boys and girls (in both groups) the most stressed aspects of school climate, over both tests, were the teacher behaviour scales i.e. concern and social control. However, it was noted that a large proportion of the female poor/

poor attenders whose absences "got worse" had a high positive preception of teachers' concern.

SECTION 5 THE PUPILS' SPARE TIME ACTIVITIES

The third possible influence on attendance to be examined is related to interests outside school as indicated by participation in different types of leisure activity. Two hypothesis were tested:

(a) that the poor attenders would differ from the good attenders in terms of their leisure interests and in the time spent on them and,

(b) that the poor attenders would spend more time on (selected) leisure pursuits as they got older.

The raw data were obtained by administering a specially constructed "Likert-type scale" questionnaire. Thus, the frequency of occurrence continuum for each activity ranged from "almost every day", "once or twice a week", "once or twice a month", "less than once a month", to "hardly ever or never do this". These five positions were given simple weights of five, four, three, two and one for scoring purposes. The item scores were added for each of the matched groups to obtain total scores for each activity.

The activities were grouped into various categories, which were "social activities", "physical activities", "routine/

"routine activities", "passive activities", "intellectual activities" and "hobbies" (Curr, Hallworth and Wilkinson 1962,1964.).

As a check on the frequency of occurrence, the weighted scores of items making up selected groupings were examined (in both testings) under the hypothesis that poor attenders were more likely to take part more frequently than the good attenders (i.e. were more likely to score over three quarters of the maximum score and above than the good attenders)(For example, there were four activities making up the "social activities" grouping on the second test, the maximum score being 20 and the minimum score being 4. Thus the hypothesis was that the poor attenders were more likely to score 15 and above than the poor attenders on "social activities").

The results were presented using a selection of the following tables:

(a) frequency of occurrence of activities by the matched groups

(b) analysis of responses from matched pairs showing differences in the time spent on the activity with probability levels.

(c) the matched groups weighted scores on selected items, showing probability levels.

(d) participation (more often/less often) on various activities by the matched groups by the second test, showing probability levels.

Statistical Techniques

The sign test was chosen to find the one-tailed probability associated with the occurrence under the null hypotheses (equal to or less than $\alpha = 0.05$) as the activities questionnaire involved/

involved ordinal measures (the difference may be represented by plus and minus) and the study involved matched pairs.

Note: the symbols used for the sign test were drawn from Siegal (1956) and were as follows:-

N = the number of matched pairs that show differences

X = the number of cases of good attenders that exceeded, in the predicted direction, their counterparts in the poor attenders group.

P = the probability associated with values of X related to N

The McNemar test for the significance of changes (Siegal 1956) was chosen because, by the second test, the poor attenders could be regarded as "before and after" cases (more often as positive, less often as negative) and the leisure activities gave rise to nominal (classification) measurement.

Social Activities

Table 33 shows that, over both sessions, there was no significant difference between the male poor and good attenders in the amount of time spent in going to coffee bars/cafes, pictures, going out with friends, playing indoor games and going to a disco or youth club. However, there was a significant difference between the matched girls in the amount of time they spent in coffee bars/cafes in the first test and going out with friends in the second. There was no difference noted in the time spent on the other activities.

However, it is interesting to report (Table 46 see appendix 5) that around half the boys and a quarter of the girls of/

Table 33 Analysis of responses from matched pairs showing differences in the amount of time spent on the activity.

ACTIVITY	BOYS X	BOYS N	BOYS P-Level (1 tail)	GIRLS X	GIRLS N	GIRLS P-Level (1 tail)
INITIAL TEST						
Going to a coffee bar or cafe	7	15	0.5	6	21	0.039
Going to the pictures	4	13	0.133	7	18	0.240
SECOND TEST						
Going out with friends	2	5	0.5	3	13	0.046
Playing indoor games	6	13	0.5	0	14	0.980
Going to a youth club	4	9	0.5	7	17	0.315
Going to a disco	3	11	0.113	5	16	0.105

of each group said that they hardly ever visited a disco. Many of the local discos (including that run by "Bailliol's" parents and friends association) had had to be closed because of violence due to drink etc. and this may have affected their attitude.

Table 34 Frequency of occurrence of some social activities by poor attenders (P.A.) and good attenders (G.A.)

	INITIAL TEST		SECOND TEST	
GIRLS	Coffee Bar etc.		Going out with friends	
	P.A. N=26	G.A. N=26	P.A. N=23	G.A. N=23
Almost every day	3	2	18	11
Once or twice a week	15	9	3	11
Once or twice a month	5	3	1	0
Less than once a month	0	1	0	1
Never do this	3	11	1	0

Table 34 shows that nearly all the girls (and the boys, see Appendix 5 Table 46) poor attenders as well as good attenders, claimed that they went out with friends at least once or twice a week; over three quarters of the poor attenders claimed to be with friends almost every day. These results did not support Tyerman's (1958) findings that truants are lonely and lack friends, but were in agreement with more recent findings (Reid 1981). It is noteworthy that quite a large proportion of the female good attenders said they hardly ever visited coffee bars or cafes. It may be that the time spent on that type of activity, of course, was dependent on the amount of money available to the pupil. The majority of both good and poor attenders belonged to relatively large families (i.e. more than two children) who may not have been "well off" (more than 35% of "Bailliol's" pupils were receiving free meals). However, very nearly three quarters of the poor attenders did visit cafes at least once a week. It/

It may be that for the female poor attenders, visiting these places satisfied their need for social contact more fully than the good attenders. That type of recreation must have given them some satisfaction otherwise they would not have spent their time or money in that way. It is interesting to note that a community wing was built near "Bailliol" at that time to cater for old and young and a combined bar/coffee bar was included.

As a check on the frequency of occurrence of these social activities, the weighted scores of the two items in the first test and the four in the second were examined. It was postulated that (a) in the first test the poor attenders were more likely to score seven or more than the good attenders (note that the maximum score possible was 10) and (b) in the second test the poor attenders were more likely to score 15 and above than the good attenders (note that the maximum score possible was 20).

Table 35 Weighted score on social activities by poor and good attenders (boys and girls combined)

		P.A.	G.A.	X	N	P-LEVEL (2 tail)
INITIAL TEST						
Weighted score	Below 7	34	35	9	21	0.332
	7 and above	12	11			
SECOND TEST						
	Below 15	22	17	15	36	0.121
	15 and above	17	12			

Table 35 shows that the poor attenders do not take part more frequently in these social activities than the good attenders.

In the light of Hargreaves' (1967) suggestion that as adolescents develop they give increasing importance to activities which allow continued interaction with their peers, we might expect that the poor attenders spend more time on social activities as they get older, - in particular, that they might spend more time going to cafes/coffee bars and youth clubs.

Table 36 Number of poor attenders and good attenders spending time (more often/less often) on visiting cafes, youth clubs and coffee bars by the second test.

	Poor attenders		Good attenders		
	more often	less often	more often	less often	about the same
Boys	9	4	10	1	8
Girls	4	8	9	4	21
Boys and girls	13	12	19	5	29

Chi-square = 0 Degrees of freedom = 1

Probability < 0.48 (1 tail)

Table 36 shows that the hypothesis was not sustained. The poor attenders do not show a significant tendency to spend more time on this type of activity. The table also shows that by the time of the second test, while a number of male poor attenders were going to these places more often a similar number of female poor attenders were going less often. It also shows that over half of/

of the girls were spending about the same time as before on these activities. However, the interesting point is that many more good attenders were spending more time at these establishments, i.e. growing more similar to the poor attenders.

Physical Activities.

It has been suggested that for many children, physical activities are the most popular out of school leisure pursuits. Stewart (1950) for example, found that the favourite activities of both grammar and secondary modern school boys were cricket, football, cycling and swimming while both grammar and secondary modern girls were said to enjoy cycling and swimming. Tennis was found to be a very popular activity with grammar school girls but many secondary modern girls preferred "street games". However, it must be noted that the secondary modern girls Stewart studied were only aged between 11 and 14 years old. It is of interest to note that in all the discussions with the pupils of "Bailliol" about leisure activities, the researcher never heard tennis mentioned once. The local tennis club which was also associated with the local cricket club had a certain middle class "air" to it.

Hendry's (1976) findings also showed that many boys indicated an interest in "rough and tumble" activities but that it was only the most active girls who valued "sport" highly. He also observed that there was a pronounced tendency for both boys and girls to reduce their participation in such leisure pursuits as they grew older.

Table 37 indicates that this was also the case for both the poor and good attenders of each group of "Bailliol's" pupils. In the first test around half of both groups of girls said that they played outdoor games at least once a week, yet a year later only/

Table 37 Frequency of occurrence of some physical activities by poor attenders (P.A.) and good attenders (G.A.)

BOYS	INITIAL TEST PLAYING OUTDOOR GAMES		SECOND TEST	
	P.A. N=20	G.A. N=20	P.A. N=16	G.A. N=16
Almost every day	10	13	5	8
Once or twice a week	5	5	4	4
Once or twice a month	1	0	3	3
Less than once a month	2	0	1	1
Never do this	2	2	3	0
GIRLS	N=26	N=26	N=23	N=23
Almost every day	4	6	0	2
Once or twice a week	9	9	8	8
Once or twice a month	3	1	6	3
Less than once a month	4	2	3	4
Never do this	6	8	6	6

only about a third of the poor attenders and two fifths of the good attenders still participated that often. It is also noted that over both tests, around a quarter of both groups said that they never took part in outdoor games. Hendry(1976) observed that as they grew older, girls were unlikely to consider physical activities to be a "vitally necessary part of the female image" and this appeared to be supported by the results and comments of both the poor and good attending girls of "Bailliol".

Both groups of boys also participated less often in outdoor games as they grew older (although the decline was slightly less among the good attenders). The main reason a number of them gave for this was that their friends were doing other things and they wanted to be with them. This did not appear to be unconnected to the previous observation that many girls were now taking part in other activities !

Two of the male poor attenders who said in the final test that they never played outdoor games, demonstrated that in some cases, there may be a "personalistic" explanation for poor attendance. One of them had been in trouble with the police and, as a result had been banned by his parents from mixing with his "gang" outside school. The guidance teacher had been asked to help keep him away from them during school hours, his absences during that year increased by half as much again. The other poor attender was a quite serious boy in a certificate class, who was interested in activities such as chess etc. He had tended to be "put upon" by the other boys in his earlier school years and consequently did not mix with many pupils outside school but by his last year he had filled out, was more able to look after himself and his/

his absences halved (though he still kept to himself after school).

Over both sessions, there was no difference between the matched groups in the time spent swimming, cycling, horseriding and playing outdoor games. (See table 47 appendix). These physical activities results were checked by weighting over the items as before and postulating that in the first test, the poor attenders were more likely to score 10 and above than the good attenders and in the second test were more likely to score 7 and above than the good attenders. (Note that in the first test the maximum score was 15, while in the second the maximum score was 10.)

Table 38 Weighted score on physical activities by poor and good attenders (boys and girls combined)

		INITIAL TEST				
		P.A.	G.A.	X	N	P-Level (1 tail)
Weighted score						
	Below 10	24	19	13	31	0.239
	10 and above	22	27			
		SECOND TEST				
	Below 7	21	19	13	35	0.089
	7 and above	18	20			

Table 38 indicates that, over both tests, the poor attenders were not taking part more frequently on these physical activities than the good attenders.

In her study of school leavers' leisure activities in Lancashire, Emmett (1971) suggested that many of those pupils who wanted to leave school early did not intend to continue with any kind of physical activity after they had left school and further that, fewer "with it" children than "square" took part in physical activities. With this in mind we hypothesised that the poor attenders would spend less time on physical activities as they developed. It was more specifically hypothesised that the poor attenders spend less time on playing outdoor games by the time of the second test.

Table 39 showed that the hypothesis was sustained. The poor attenders do show a significant tendency to spend less time on this type of activity as they develop over the two tests.

Table 39 Number of poor attenders and good attenders spending time (more often/less often) on playing outdoor games by the second test.

	POOR ATTENDERS		GOOD ATTENDERS		
	more often	less often	more often	less often	about the same
Boys	2	7	1	9	13
Girls	4	9	5	12	16
Boys and Girls	6	16	6	21	29

Chi-square = 3.689 Degrees of freedom = 1

Probability < 0.05. (1 tail)

However, an interesting point is that while more good attenders were also spending less time on this leisure pursuit, three quarters of the children were spending about the same time. Such sustained interest is of importance for it posed the question of availability of facilities in the area for pupils after school.

Routine Activities

No significant difference was found, on either test, between the matched groups in the amount of time spent in doing jobs around the house or having a paid job after school hours and it was seen that a large proportion of both groups helped in the home at least once a week (table 48 appendix). As they grew older all the girls said that they gave some help but it was instructive to note that a quarter of both groups of boys said that they never helped in the home - this was before boys' courses in stage S1 at "Bailliol" contained a home economics component.

In those days of unemployment it was good to see that, by the second test, a large proportion of both groups said that they had a paid job at least once a week and that a smaller proportion of both groups said that they never had a paid job. A number of both poor and good attenders said that they hoped that their part-time job would become full-time on leaving school. Little sign of a decline in the work ethic here, in fact, a number of the younger matched pairs had to be reminded, when they applied for a schools' work permit, that they were too young to be allowed one ! Hargreaves (1967) commented that higher stream boys were/

Table 40 Frequency of occurrence of a routine activity by poor attenders (P.A.) and good attenders (G.A.)

	INITIAL TEST		SECOND TEST	
BOYS	DOING A PAID JOB			
	P.A. N=20	G.A. N=20	P.A. N=20	G.A. N=20
Almost every day	2	2	6	3
Once or twice a week	2	3	3	4
On ce or twice a month	3	0	1	1
Less than once a month	0	0	1	1
Never do this	13	15	5	7
GIRLS	N=26	N=26	N=23	N=23
Almost every day	1	2	5	5
Once or twice a week	4	4	5	9
Once or twice a month	0	1	0	0
Less than once a month	2	0	1	1
Never do this	19	19	12	8

were more likely to secure part-time employment, but in the present study it was not evident that having a paid part-time job was related to the type of class the pupil was in at "Bailliol".

No significant difference was found, in either test, between the matched groups in the frequency they helped in the house or did a paid job (table 49 appendix) but it was clear that the poor attenders spent significantly more time doing a paid job as they got older (as did the good attenders).

Table 41 Number of poor attenders and good attenders spending time (more often/less often) on doing a paid job outside school hours by the second test.

	POOR ATTENDERS		GOOD ATTENDERS		
	more often	less often	more often	less often	about the same
Boys	10	2	6	1	13
Girls	10	1	12	1	22
Boys and Girls	20	3	18	2	35

Chi-square = 11.13 Degrees of freedom = 1

Probability < 0.001 (1 tail)

Hobbies

Over both sessions, there was no difference between the male poor and good attenders in the amount of time spent on making models, etc., fishing or playing a musical instrument. While there was a significant difference between the female poor and good attenders in the first test in the amount of time spent/

spent sewing and knitting this had disappeared by the second test.

Table 42 Analysis of responses from the matched pairs showing differences in the amount of time spent on the activity.

	INITIAL TEST					
	BOYS			GIRLS		
ACTIVITY	X	N	P-Level (1 tail)	X	N	P-Level (1 tail)
Woodwork, making models etc.	0	10	0.980	-	-	-
Sewing & knitting	-	-	-	3	13	0.046
	SECOND TEST					
Fishing, playing a musical instrument, etc.	2	6	0.344	3	7	0.5
Do it yourself, sewing, etc.	3	8	0.363	7	15	0.5

At one time, a leisure activities afternoon had been introduced into "Bailliol's" curriculum and many of the activities introduced were of the hobbies variety. In the light of the poor response by the pupils to this experiment, it was not expected that the pupils would participate very often in these activities in their own time after school. Table 43 shows how few of both groups of boys and girls participate in these hobbies very frequently and how many said that they never took part in them at all. It was shown how similar the two groups/

Table 43. Frequency of occurrence of some hobbies by poor attenders (P.A.) and good attenders (G.A.)

	INITIAL TEST		SECOND TEST	
	Woodwork, Models, etc.		Do it yourself etc.	
BOYS	P.A. N=20	G.A. N=20	P.A. N=16	G.A. N=16
Almost every day	0	1	1	1
Once or twice a week	4	4	0	0
Once or twice a month	4	2	2	3
Less than once a month	1	2	2	3
Never do this	11	11	11	9
GIRLS	Sewing & Knitting			
	N=26	N=26	N=23	N=23
Almost every day	1	0	0	0
Once or twice a week	1	9	4	4
Once or twice a month	3	2	5	3
Less than once a month	3	3	2	4
Never do this	18	12	12	12

groups were in how often they took part in these hobbies. By the second test fewer poor attending girls (from just under three quarters to just over half) said that they never sewed or knitted. However, there was no statistical difference on the time spent on these activities by both groups of poor attenders over the two tests (table 50 appendix).

Passive and Intellectual Activities

Over both tests, there was no significant difference in the amount of time spent by the poor and good attenders listening to records, tapes, watching T.V. or doing homework or reading. (See Table 51 appendix 5) Not surprisingly, most of the matched pairs said that they listened to records or watched T.V. at least once a week. (See Table 52 appendix 5)

Table 44/

Table 44 Frequency of occurrence of selected intellectual activities by poor attenders and good attenders

	INITIAL TEST				SECOND TEST	
	Reading a book		Reading comics etc.		Doing homework or reading.	
BOYS	P.A. N=20	G.A. N=20	P.A. N=20	G.A. N=20	P.A. N=16	G.A. N=16
Almost every day	4	1	6	6	1	1
Once or twice a week	3	4	8	10	4	4
Once or twice a month	1	5	1	2	1	2
Less than once a month	2	0	0	1	0	3
Never do this	10	10	5	1	10	6
GIRLS	N=26	N=26	N=26	N=26	N=23	N=23
Almost every day	5	6	13	7	3	4
Once or twice a week	9	8	10	15	5	10
Once or twice a month	5	2	1	1	4	1
Less than once a month	2	3	0	0	4	0
Never do this	5	7	2	3	7	8

A large proportion of both boys and girls from each group also indicated that they read comics and magazines at least once a week. It is interesting to note that Stewart (1950) had observed that more than twice as many secondary modern boys and girls read comics as their opposite numbers in grammar schools. She suggested that this might be because comics make fewer/

fewer demands on vocabulary and are therefore better appreciated by fluent readers. For the first test, Table 44 indicates that, while 35% of the male poor attenders read a book at least once a week 75% of them read comics at least once a week. The figures for the female poor attenders were much higher (53% reading books and 88% reading comics at least once a week). The most interesting point however that is noted was the <u>similarity</u> between the poor and good attenders of both sexes in their reading frequency. It is also noteworthy that in the researcher's discussions with "Bailliol's" English and remedial teachers, they suggested that <u>both</u> matched groups contained a number of poor readers.

At the time of the second test, "Bailliol" tried to strengthen its homework policy and it was disappointing to note that among the boys more than half of the poor attenders and a third of the controls said that they hardly ever stayed at home to do homework etc. While nearly a third of both groups of girls said the same, however, nearly a third of the poor attenders and over three fifths of the controls said they did homework at least once a week. At least some of the work put in by guidance staff to encourage pupils (and some teachers!) to do more homework had paid off.

We may summarize this section in the generalizations that, with one or two exceptions, there was no significant difference between the matched groups in the amount of time they spent on various leisure activities, that the poor attenders did not take part more often than the good attenders in a number of activities and that as they grew older, the poor attenders did not increase the time they spent on some activities.

The/

The exceptions were 1) The female poor attenders spent more time in coffee bars/cafes in the first test and going out with friends in the second.

2) The female poor attenders spent more time sewing and knitting in the first test.

3) The poor attenders spent less time playing outdoor games as they grew older.

It was also noted that both the poor and good attenders spent more time doing a paid job outside school hours as they grew older.

Overall Summary

In general, it was noted how similar were the matched groups' preferences for many job activity areas and job satisfactions, their view on aspects of school climate and the time spent on various leisure activities. When comparisons were drawn with Crowley's sample (job activity/job satisfaction) and Finlayson's sample (school climate) the closeness of the two groups became even more evident (cf. Reid 1984).

Some exceptions however were found. These included significant differences in (a) interest in practical jobs between female poor and good attenders, (b) importance placed by poor attenders in having pleasant working conditions, (c) male perceptions on emotional tone (first test only) and (d) time spent by female poor attenders in coffee bars/cafes, sewing and knitting (first test only) and going out with friends (second test only).

Finally, it was noted that a large proportion of the female poor attenders whose absences "got worse" had a high positive perception of teachers' concern. This may not be contradictory for even concerned teachers may be seen by absentees as being associated with "failure and conflict" (Reid 1983).

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS

Restatement of the problem

Why do some children unnecessarily and persistently absent themselves from school while others attend regularly? The evidence examined in Chapter 1 (which appeared to confirm that pupil absenteeism is a considerable problem), suggested that this may be a fairly common question amongst teachers in general and guidance teachers in particular, and one to which there may be many answers.

Traditionally, answers have focused on the child's attributes (personality, attitudes, attainment) and on his/her home background. For example, various studies have suggested that pupils with poor attendance records may be lonely and insecure (Tyerman 1958), dissatisfied with school (Eaton and Houghton 1974), have a low self concept (Reid 1982a) and perhaps less able intellectually (Billington 1979). Some of the difficult home circumstances from which many poor attenders appear to suffer include overburdened parents and parents openly hostile to school authority (Pack Report 1977), family negligence (N.A.C.E.W.O. 1975), unemployment (May 1975) and deprived, less stable social backgrounds (Reid 1982a).

However, during the last decade, there has been a growing realisation by those writing on the subject, that the answers provided by examining these factors may be inadequate, so that attention has recently moved to studying characteristics of the child's school. The evidence examined in Chapter two suggested that truancy had some association with the type of school a pupil attends (Steedman and Fogelman 1980), that unexplained absences may

may rise sharply with yearly stage (Pack Report 1977), that certain features of school organisation correlated significantly with attendance (Rutter et al 1979); and that the student absenteeism rate may possibly be related to the social climate of the classroom (Moos and Moos 1978) and to the quality and attitudes of the teaching staff (Reid 1983).

Teachers concerned about their pupils' poor attendance and the reasons for it may feel powerless to help if they consider that the absences may be due to the personal characteristics of pupils, or their home background. The effects of "societal influences" as postulated by the Pack Committee, for example, are also too amorphous and pervasive to allow teachers to "combat" them in any realistic sense. If however, teachers consider that poor attendance may, in part, be due to some school characteristics and the resulting pupils' attitudes, they may feel in a stronger position to assist in its prevention and/or reduction. They may be further encouraged to investigste the problem by suggestions such as that made by Carroll (1977):

> "... the fact that a number of pupils do find certain aspects of school life unacceptable is worrying, particularly where such attitudes lead to ... absenteeism. Certainly there is scope for yet more research aimed at examining further the nature of pupils' attitudes towards school and the relationship between those attitudes and absenteeism in its various forms." (p15)

But which factors (in addition to or in conjunction with those already mentioned) in the complex web which comprises a school may be held responsible for children's attitudes conducive to poor attendance? And how strong is the relationship (if any)?

The work of Musgrove (1966) provided a starting point in

in addressing these questions, for (as already discussed in Chapter 2) it suggested that pupils expect school to satisfy both their "expressive" needs (feeling at ease, wanted, loved, welcomed, etc.) and their "instrumental" needs (understanding and enlightenment, competence at games and sports, getting on in life etc.) Musgrove stressed that the major "expressive" demand made by pupils was for "freedom and self-direction; freedom to put your own point of view, to be treated as an individual" and a prime "instrumental" demand was "preparation for a career". This study, however, was concerned with teacher-pupil relationships in general. Eaton and Houghton (1974) however, considered that these demands might provide a good basis for revealing any differences between poor and good attenders in their feelings towards home and school since:

> " ..... its identification of the instrumental and expressive provisions of home and school could be used to explore whether the more utilitarian or humanitarian aspects of school or home are linked with persistent absence." (p161)

However, their questionnaire was designed to bring a varied response and did not deal specifically with the main "expressive and instrumental" needs as outlined by Musgrove or with the differences between the poor and good attenders on these points.

Musgrove considered that the "instrumentality" that pupils hope for in the school lies chiefly in the form of preparation for work. Further point is added to this observation by Raby and Walford (1981) who showed that pupils consider the type of job they might get and the resulting job satisfactions that they might experience to be very important needs. Can these be related to absence ?

Musgrove also suggested that many pupils have high expectations that their outside interests connected with leisure will provide them with "expressive" satisfactions (sense of purposeful activity etc.) The same researcher too, noted that pupils also make "expressive" demands on school; the greatest being for self expression and self direction. However, schools may be failing to meet this demand, since many pupils reflect their dissatisfaction with negative comments about the school's "atmosphere". Unfortunately, Musgrove made no attempt to relate "expressive" need - frustrations to school absence, but is it possible they may be linked ?

In an effort to fill in some of these gaps, the present study was designed to look at three of the possible factors which might affect pupil motivation in school i.e. (i) their plans for the future in terms of occupations; (2) their out-of-school interests; and (3) their perceptions of "school climate" in terms of pupil-teacher relations etc.

To enable these factors to be tested the following procedures were used.

Description of procedures used

The researcher carried out all parts of the investigation. These included: register checking; discussions with register teachers and guidance teachers (on their opinions of which pupils were poor attenders); discussions with pupils (for pilot work on local leisure activities); the selection of the poor attenders and their controls; overseeing the completion of the instruments and all scoring and recording. The data was collected during May 1978 and May 1979, at any time convenient to the pupils and/

and the researcher. This meant that the testing had to be done in small groups. The conditions of testing and the order in which the various tests were carried out, were kept as similar as possible for all the small groups. However, the testing had to be carried out during the pupils' school day and outwith the researcher's teaching load. This meant that some groups were necessarily more constrained for time than others. The instruments had to be read to some of the remedial pupils and additional oral explanations (the meaning of words etc.) had to be given to others. It was hoped that this help would not prejudice their various choices.

Subjects The school selected for study was a bottom-tier comprehensive school in a two-tier system. The "top-tier" school took the academic top third from the "bottom-tier" schools at the end of stage S2. None of the transferring pupils in stage S2 were taken as subjects. This meant that the sample of pupils available for testing were all of average or below average ability, not the full ability range.

All of the available poor attenders (20 boys and 26 girls) in stage S2 (10 boys and 10 girls) and stage S3 (10 boys and 16 girls) of "Bailliol" participated in the first year of the study (4 boys and 3 girls being "lost" in the second year). They were matched with a control group of "good" attenders with respect to age, sex and school class. However it should be noted that the "good" attenders were only considered to be so because of the relatively small number of absences they had at that time (the selection of these pupils was based solely on a study of the school's registers. Note also that it was impossible to match the/

the pairs in any of the qualities likely to have an effect on pupils' attendance (such as home background etc) or attitudes (beliefs, feelings, etc.).

Stage S1 pupils were not chosen because they were still settling in at the school and stage S4 pupils were rejected because many of them were about to leave school. This meant a further reduction in the numbers of pupils available for testing.

Instruments Data was collected by questionnaire as follows:-

1. On the pupil's occupational interests and satisfactions:

   A standard interests questionnaire, the Crowley Occupational Interests Blank (Crowley 1976) was used. This questionnaire was designed for use by average and below average ability pupils of both sexes. Note that Crowley pointed out that the Blank is not an interests test for:

   > "It measures in the same way a compass measures- it indicates the direction of a person's occupational curiousity." (p2)

   A check was made using the "free range" section to find the extent of agreement with the pupils main interest area choice as indicated by the questionnaire. It should be noted that the percentage of both groups of pupils disagreeing with the grid choice was quite large.

2. On the pupil's view of the atmosphere of the school: The Finlayson's School Climate Index (Finlayson 1970) was used.

3. On the pupil's spare time activities: A questionnaire based on contemporary local leisure interests was used, to indicate the frequency of their participation in each activity.

Principal findings/

Principal Findings

The main finding to emerge from this study was the lack of difference between good and bad attenders i.e.

1. The poor and good attenders of similar sex expressed similar interest for many job activity areas so that boys (in each group) preferred outdoor and practical work while the girls were more interested in social and office areas. These interests were maintained over both tests. However, one significant difference was found between the matched girls, on both tests, in that the poor attenders expressed greater interest in practical jobs.
2. Both groups held similar views of the importance of the main sources of work satisfaction. However, in the first test, poor attenders were more interested in the need for fellowship and company in a job, and in the second test, the male poor attenders placed greater emphasis on having pleasant working conditions.
3. The matched pairs held similar perceptions of the four factors of school climate selected for this study with the most stressed factors being the teacher behaviour scales of concern and social control. When younger, the male poor attenders obtained less social and emotional satisfaction from participating in school activities etc., although this difference disappeared as they grew older (when both groups of boys indicated less satisfaction). Both groups of girls, however, expressed a more positive view on the social and emotional satisfaction they were getting from school.
4. The poor/

4. The poor and good attenders spent similar amounts of time on various leisure activities. However, one significant difference was found between the matched girls in the amount of time they spent in coffee bars/cafes in the first test and going out with friends in the second, with the poor attenders spending more time in each case. On a number of selected social and physical activities, the poor attenders did not take part more often than the good attenders.

5. As they grew older both the matched groups spent more time doing a paid job outside school hours and less time participating in outdoor games.

6. A large proportion of the female poor attenders whose absences "got worse"had a high positive perception of teachers' concern.

Discussion of findings/

Discussion of findings

The most striking findings of this study, then, lie in the similarities rather than the differences between pupils. Although, when seleded, the "good" and "bad" attenders were clearly differentiated with respect to their attendance records, they were not so in terms of the variables examined. Other writers (Rutter et al 1979; Reynolds 1974, 1976) have shown that particular schools may be conducive to particular attitudes and the present case, where pupils are of roughly similar attainment, come from similar backgrounds, live in the same area etc., would appear to exemplify this.

This may explain why, contrary to the findings of Kavanagh and Carroll (1977) who reported that poor attenders had a poorer perception of the school climate, no difference was found in the present study between poor and good attenders' perceptions of the four aspects of school climate. Those researchers studied pupils drawn from a number of schools and if Rutter and Reynolds' ideas are correct then "Bailliol" is likely to have its own individual "atmosphere" with its own influence on its pupils behaviour and attendance.

Wilcox (1976) too, found that poor attenders had less positive perceptions of the school climate when her five schools' results were combined. When they were examined separately, however, instances were found of similar perceptions being held by attenders and non-attenders on some parts of the school climate. Her results showed that there were clearly perceived differences in the climate-types of the schools. If these differences were placed along a continuum, she suggested, they/

they would indicate a move from schools with "open" climates to schools with "closed" climates. It is likely that the high positive perceptions of the teacher behaviour scales held by both the poor and good attenders in the present study suggest that "Bailliol" may have an "open" climate i.e. the kind of atmosphere that enables pupils to feel they have a positive relationship with their teachers. The fact that poor attendance did not appear to stem from certain pupils feeling that school was failing to meet their "expressive" needs was also inconsistent with Eaton and Houghton's (1974) findings that persistent absence was linked with pupils' dissatisfaction with the way school met their emotional needs. However, those researchers also studied a number of schools, including both grammar and secondary modern. They reported no statistically significant differences in "expressive" satisfaction between female absentee and regular attenders of both schools; between both groups of modern school boys; or between both groups of younger grammar school boys. Only among the older grammar school boys (15 and 16 year old) were there statistically significant differences in "expressive" satisfactions between absentee and regular attenders. It was suggested that for the older absentee school had become an "emotionally unrewarding place." In the light of Musgrove's work it seems reasonable to speculate that, in a particular school, such feelings might present themselves in pupils other than "persistent absentees." In the present study, it was observed that, by the second test, both male and female matched pairs appeared to derive less emotional satisfaction from "Bailliol" and the absences of many increased. It was possible, although/

although unclear from the study, that both the poor and good attenders felt similar low levels of fulfilment of their "expressive" needs by the school, as they grew older. As suggested in chapter four p95, it would appear that some explanations of absence may well be "age related". It is significant that as they grew older, the two groups became closer in their social activities - the good attenders tending to increase participation twoards the level of the poor attenders. This is consistent with the finding of Sugarman (1967) who drew attention to the social pressure among young people to conform to the "teenage" role (dating, smoking, wearing teenage fashion, frequenting coffee bars, etc) which he believed led to unfavourable attitudes to school.

In this connection, it is interesting that the study findings suggested that both groups held similar low perceptions on some aspects of the school climate (especially when their results were compared to Finlayson's (1970) sample). Both groups for example derived little satisfaction from participating in the school's activities, appeared not to engage readily in the tasks set by the teacher, believed that their teachers were restrictive in their class control and insistent on pupil compliance. Their perceptions of these aspects, of course, may have been coloured by such factors as their own background characteristics, the subject matter of the class etc. (Moos and Moos 1978) (and the type of school?) It may be, of course, that the teachers were affected by pupil reactions to become so. For example, teachers may become restrictive, critical and/

and controlling in class when they have to contend, in the main with pupils who show little enjoyment of learning, who have anti-school feelings and/or "motivation away from school" (Fry and Coe 1980). It is possible that pupils in one class may be easier to control or to motivate than in other classes (Furlong 1976) with the result that teachers may have to exert more authority in some classes than in others.

The finding that for both boys and girls (in both groups) the main factors of school climate were the teacher behaviour scales of concern and social control, was consistent with that of Wilcox (1976) who noted that these scales crystallised the attitudes held by teachers and their behaviour towards pupils. She reported that it was the teachers in their relationships with pupils and each other who were primarily responsible for creating the social climate of the school. The way pupils assess their teachers' treatment of them clearly affects their behaviour, their morale and their attitudes to the classroom (Furlong 1976) and suggests that poor attendance may be related to the social climate of the classroom (Moos and Moos 1978). This may well partly explain why pupils "bunk off" from some lessons and not from others for it is those classrooms where pupils feel there is restrictive teacher control that tend to have higher rates of absence (Moos and Moos 1978). Classroom social climates, of course, can also be supportive e.g. those classroom environments seen to be high in teacher involvement/ support and considered to be "task oriented" may have much appeal for those pupils interested in career preparation (Fry and Coe 1980).

This latter instrumental satisfaction has been seen to be of prime importance for many pupils (Musgrove 1966) and this study's findings that poor attendance did not appear to stem from pupil differences in instrumental needs/satisfaction was consistent with Eaton and Houghton's (1974) findings. That "Bailliol's" poor attenders did not differ from their matched pairs in terms of job preference or desired job satisfaction may well reflect a realistic appreciation by both groups about their career capabilities/prospects and a similar consistent interest in them (Liversidge 1974; Raby and Walford 1981).

In so far as pupils' perceptions of instrumental satisfactions and of school climate were concerned, the expected differences between good and bad attenders, failed to manifest themselves. There was no evidence that the bad attenders felt the teachers to be less concerned or more punitive.

Some instrumental findings with implications for teachers

We know from Sugarman (1967) that the mid-teens may be a period when many people hold unfavourable attitudes to school, rejecting much that school offers. It is also clear that not only do many pupils show opposition to school values they also hold considerable anti-work attitudes (Raby and Walford 1981). Commonsense indicates that some of these pupils may confirm their feelings by absenting themselves from school. It/

It is at this point that teachers can fall back on the knowledge that school does have "instrumental" demands made on it by the pupils (Musgrove 1966), and that pupils (including truants) expect school to demonstrate positively its intention of satisfying these demands, especially those engendered by their vocational needs (Pack Report 1977).

Thus questions were raised about the use teachers could make of the instrumental study finding (i.e. knowledge of the pupils' job interests/satisfactions) to help the pupils and perhaps influence their attitudes and attendance. For example, a degree of sex differentiation in job area interest was found, consistent with Fogelman's (1979) results, with the boys of both groups more interested in active/outdoor and practical areas, while the matched girls preferred social and office areas. Such differences should not be ignored (Fogelman 1979) by the school but used by it to enable the pupils to acquire the concepts, skills and information necessary to develop their own interests. This not only has implications for advice in the selection of curricular options already available etc., but also for active encouragement being given to pupils to develop their special interests through the provision of short courses under the Munn and Dunning programme and development of suitable modules of work under the Action Plan for 16 plus.

Sex differences were also noted in the present study in the importance placed on various job satisfactions, which were consistent with Steedman and Fogelman's (1980) findings. The male poor attenders, for example, were significantly more interested/

interested in having pleasant working conditions, an important aspect of which was "work proceeds at a nice steady pace and there are never any problems." Such pupils might find the pace of their lessons too fast or the standard of the work they are given to do too hard. It might be important for them to be able to turn to a member of the school staff for help if they were placed in such a situation (Reid 1981).

It was also shown that many girls (both poor and good attenders) did not like to work alone and that they desired a friendly working atmosphere. A hint here for suitable material (group-work/project etc) and teaching styles. For example, in how many classes might the poor attenders be constrained to work alone, not to talk to others etc. or have to deal with teachers who seemed remote and distant ?

Another noteable feature of the present study was the consistent interest shown by the poor attenders in two particular aspects of job satisfaction - companionship and interest. The identification of these views could be used by those responsible for the curriculum planning and teaching methods of the school. For example, should the classes in the poor attenders' courses encourage more classroom cooperation between pupils, combined projects etc., and a generally more informal approach ? Perhaps even encourage a rearrangement of the layout of a classroom away from the stereotyped row upon row of desks to more grouped tables ? The fact that the poor attenders gave a high importance to the need to be interested in the job itself was of interest to the school for it suggested that they could be motivated by what the jobs offer in terms of interest/

interest and training. In this connection, work experience is becoming increasingly accepted as a legitimate educational activity for it provides opportunities for personal experience which brings greater relevance to many pupils' school studies. The same finding is also of relevance to careers education in school. Pupils should be provided with easy access to facilities providing knowledge of the aspects of the work which they regard as important i.e. through the use of a careers' library, careers education, visits to workplaces, visiting speakers and careers officers.

By utilising pupils' instrumental demands in the ways described, the school can demonstrate a "positive" interest in the pupils and show that "they do care" (Reid 1983).

The study has shown that it is possible to measure poor and good attenders' perceptions of some aspects of school climate (i.e. their perceptions of the behaviour of other pupils and of their teachers). For both groups the relationships between teachers and pupils were seen to be of prime importance.

REFERENCES

Official Publications

Central Advisory Council for Education (England)(1959) Fifteen to Eighteen 2 vols. (Crowther Report,1959) HMSO

Central Advisory Council for Education (England)(1967) Children and their Primary Schools: A Report 2 vols. (Plowden Report,1967) HMSO

Consultative Committee of the Board of Education The Education of the Adolescent (The Hadow Report,1926) HMSO

Department of Education and Science (1971) Slow Learners in Secondary Schools HMSO

Department of Education and Science (1972) Educational Priority 2vols. HMSO

Department of Education and Science (1974) One Day Survey into Absenteeism HMSO

Department of Education and Science (1978) Truancy and Behavioural Problems in some Urban Schools H.M.I. HMSO

Robbins Report, The (1963) Committee on Higher Education HMSO

Scottish Education Department (1968)Guidance in Scottish Secondary Schools HMSO

Scottish Education Department (1975) Education in Dumfriesshire H.M.I. HMSO

Scottish Education Department (1976) Guidance in Scottish Secondary Schools A Progress Report by H.M.I. HMSO

Scottish Education Department (1977) The Structure of the Curriculum in the Third and Fourth Years of the Scottish Secondary School (Munn Report,1977) HMSO

Scottish Education Department (1977)Truancy and Indiscipline in Schools in Scotland (Pack Report,1977) HMSO

Scottish Education Department (1981) Children's Hearings Statistics Statistical Bulletin Social Work Services Group

Scottish Education Department (1984) Statistical Bulletin Social Work Services Group

Other Publications

Argyle,M. & Robinson,P. (1962) Two Origins of Achievement Motivation Br. J. Social Clinical Psychol., 1, 107-120

Banks,O. (1976) The Sociology of Education Batsford

Barker-Lunn,J. (1970) Streaming in the Primary School NFER

Barnes,D; Britten,J. & Rosen,H. (1969) Language, the Learner and the School Penguin

Baum,T. (1978) Surveys of Absenteeism: a Question of Timing Ed. Res., 20, 2, 226

Billington,B.J. (1978) Patterns of Attendance and Truancy: a Study of Attendance and Truancy amongst First Year Comprehensive School Pupils Educ. Rev., 30, 3, 221-225

Billington,B.J. (1979) Truants: some Personality Characteristics Durham Newcastle Res. Rev., 9, 43, 1-6

Blythman,M. (1977) "Fa Wid Be A Scholar?": a Study in Truancy Scottish Ass. for the Study of Delinquency

Bransby,E.R. (1951) A Study of Absence from School Medical Officer, 86, 223-230

Brown,D. (1982) Truants, Families and Schools Unpublished MSc. Thesis, Dept. of Soc., University of Stirling

Brown,D. (1983) Truants, Families and Schools: a Critique of the Literature on Truancy Ed. Rev., 35, 3, 225-235

Carroll,H.C.M. (1977) A Cross-Sectional and Longitudinal Study of Poor and Good Attenders in a Comprehensive School, in: Absenteeism in South Wales Studies of Pupils, their Homes and their Secondary Schools University College of Swansea

Chetcuti,F. (1961) A Study of the Morale of A Stream and C Stream Pupils in Secondary Schools with Special References to any Differences in the Attitude and Behaviour of their Teachers Educ. Rev., 14, 49-53

Children's Hearings Statistics (see Scottish Education Department)

Cohen,L. (1974) Labelling and Alienation in a British Secondary School Educ. Rev., 26, 2, 100-108

Cohen,L. (1976) Educational Research in Classrooms and Schools: a Manual of Materials and Methods Harper & Row

Cope,E. & Gray,J. (1978) Figures and Perspectives on the National Problem of Truancy: an Opening Discussion Collaborative Research Newsletter, 3 University of Edinburgh

Curr,W; Hallworth,H.J. & Wilkinson,A.M. (1962) How Secondary Modern School Children Spend their Time Educ. Rev., 15, 1, 3-11

Curr,W; Hallworth,H.J. & Wilkinson,A.M. (1964) Patterns of Behaviour in Secondary Modern School Children Educ. Rev., 16, 3, 187-196

Crowley,A.D. (1976) The Crowley Occupational Interests Blank Manual CRAC

Crowther Report (1959) (see Central Advisory Council for Education)

Davie,R. (1972) The Missing Year The Guardian 12 September

Douglas,J.W.B; Ross,J.H. & Simpson,H.R. (1968) All our Future Peter Davies

Eaton,M.J. & Houghton,D.M. (1974) The Attitudes of Persistent Teenage Absentees and Regular Attenders towards School and Home Irish J. Psychol., 2, 159-175

Education for What? New Society 9 February 1984, 218-219

Education and Work New Society 18 February 1982, 1-4

Educational Priority (1972) (see Department of Education and Science)

Elliott,R. (1975) Some Characteristics of School Non-Attenders assessed at Lisnevin School Community Home Schools Gazette, 69, 400-403

Emmett,I. (1971) Youth and Leisure in an Urban Sprawl Manchester University Press

Farrington,D. (1980) Truancy, Delinquency, the Home and the School, in: Hersov,L. & Berg,I.(Eds) Out of School Wiley

Finlayson,D.S. (1970) Administrative Manual for the School Climate Index (NSI) NFER

Fleming,D. & Lavercombe,S. (1980) Ready for the Real World? Sheffield Ed. Res. Current Highlights, 2, 11-12

Fogelman,K. (1978) School Attendance, Attainment and Behaviour Br. J. educ. Psychol., 48, 148-158

Fogelman,K. (1979) Educational and Career Aspirations of Sixteen-Year-Olds Br. J. of Guid. Counsell., 7, 1, 42-55

Fogelman,K. & Richardson,K. (1974) School Attendance: some Results from the National Child Development Study, in: Turner,B. (Ed) Truancy Ward Lock

Fraser,E. (1959) Home Environment and the School University of London Press

Frude,N. & Gault,H. (1984) Children's Disruption at School: a Cause for Concern?, in: Frude,N. & Gault,H. (Eds) Disruptive Behaviour in Schools Wiley

Fry,P.S. & Coe,K.J. (1980) Interaction among Dimensions of Academic Motivation and Classroom Social Climate: a Study of the Perceptions of Junior High and High School Pupils Br. J. educ. Psychol., 50, 33-42

Furlong,V. (1976) Interaction Sets in the Classroom: Towards a Study of Pupil Knowledge, in: Hammersley,M. & Woods,P. (Eds) The Process of Schooling Routledge & Kegan Paul in Association with Open University

Galloway,D. (1976a) Size of School, Socio-Economic Hardship, Suspension Rates and Persistent-Unjustified Absence from School Br. J. educ. Psychol., 46, 40-47

Galloway,D. (1976b) Persistent Unjustified Absence from School Trends Ed., 4, 22-27

Galloway,D. (1982) Persistent Absence from School Educ. Res., 24,3, 188-196

Galloway,D; Ball.T. & Seyd,R. (1981) Administrative and Legal Procedures available to Local Education Authorities in Cases of Poor School Attendance Durham & Newcastle Res. Rev., 9, 46, 9-17

Goldthorpe,J.H; Lockwood,D; Bechofer,F. & Platt,J. (1968) The Affluent Worker: Industrial Attitudes and Behaviour Cambridge University Press

Gow,L. & McPherson,A. (1980) Tell Them From Me Aberdeen University Press

Graham,J.E. (1889) Sellar's Manual of the Education Acts Blackwood

Guilford,J.P. & Fruchter,B. (1973) Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education McGraw Hill

Hadow Report (1926) (see Consultative Committee of the Board of Education)

Halsey,A.H. (Ed) (1972) Educational Priority Vol 1 Problems and Policies HMSO (see Department of Education and Science)

Hargreaves,D.H. (1967) Social Relations in a Secondary School Routledge & Kegan Paul

Hargreaves,D.H; Heston,S.K. & Mellor,F.J. (1975) Deviance in Classrooms Routledge & Kegan Paul

Health Visitors Association (1974) (see National Association of Chief Education Welfare Officers)

Hendry,L. (1976) Early School Leavers, Sport and Leisure Scot. Educ. Stud., 8, 48-51

Hersov,L.A. (1960a) Persistent Non-Attendance at School J. Child. Psychol. Psychiat., 1, 130-136

Hersov,L.A. (1960b) Refusal to go to School J. Child. Psychol. Psychiat., 1, 137-145

Hersov,L.A. & Berg,I. (Eds) (1980) Out of School Wiley

H.M. Inspectorate (1978) (see Department of Education and Science)

Holland Report (1977) (see Manpower Services Commission)

Holt,J. (1969) How Children Fail Pelican

Holt,J. (1970) The Underachieving School Pelican

Institute for the Study and Treatment of Delinquency (1974) Truancy in Glasgow: I.S.T.D. Scotland: Glasgow Working Party Br. J. Crim., 14, 248-255

Kavanagh,A. & Carroll,H.C.M. (1977) Pupil Attendance in Three Comprehensive Schools A Study of the Pupils and their Families, in: Carroll,H.C.M. (Ed) Absenteeism in South Wales Studies of Pupils, their Homes and their Secondary Schools University College of Swansea

Jones,A. (1980) The School's View of Persistent Non-Attendance, in: Hersov,L. & Berg,I. (Eds) Out of School Wiley

Lacey,C. (1966) Some Sociological Concomitants of Academic Streaming in a Grammar School Br. J. Sociology, 3

Lacey,C. (1970) Hightown Grammar Manchester University Press

Lang,T. (1975) I am Absent, You play Truant, He/She is a Phobic Times Edn1. Supp., 3118, 21-22

Lewis,D.G. (1967) Statistical Methods in Education University of London Press

Lindsay,C. (1968) School and Community Pergamon Press

Liversidge,W. (1974) Life Chances, in: Williams,W.M. (Ed) Occupational Choice George Allen & Unwin

Macbeth,A; Mackenzie,M & Breckenridge,I. (1980) Scottish School Councils: Policy Making, Participation or Irrelevance? HMSO

Macleod,A. (1980) Report for Dumfries School Council: Attendance Sub-Committee Agenda Item no. 8

Magistrates Association (The) (1975-76) Fifty Sixth Annual Report

Manpower Services Commission (1977) Young People and Work (Holland Report, 1977) Manpower Services Commission

Martin,F.M; Fox,S.J. & Murray,K. (1981) Children Out Of Court Scottish Academic Press

May,D. (1975) Truancy, School Absenteeism and Delinquency Scot. Educ. Stud., 7, 2, 97-107

Mitchell,S. (1972) The Absentees Educ. in the North, 9, 22-28

Mitchell,S. & Shepherd,M. (1967) The Child who Dislikes going to School Br. J. educ. Psychol., 37, 32-40

Mitchell,S. & Shepherd,M. (1980) Reluctance to go to School, in: Hersov,L. & Berg,I. (Eds) Out of School Wiley

Moos,R.H. & Moos,B.S. (1978) Classroom Social Climate and Student Absences and Grades J. educ. Psychol., 70, 263-269

Morrison,A. & McIntyre,D.(1969) Teachers and Teaching Penguin

Mullen,F.A. (1950) Truancy and Classroom Disorder as Symptoms of Personality Problems J. educ. Psychol., 41, 97-109

Munn Report (1977) (see Scottish Education Department)

Murray,K. (1982) Truancy, in: Martin,F.M. & Murray,K. (Eds) The Scottish Juvenile Justice System Scottish Academic Press

Musgrove,F. (1966a) The Social Needs and Satisfactions of Some Young People at Home, in Youth Clubs and at Work Part 1 Br. J. educ. Psychol., 36, 61-71

Musgrove,F. (1966b) The Social Needs and Satisfactions of Some Young People Part 2 - at School Br. J. educ. Psychol., 36, 137-149

National Association of Chief Education Officers (The) (1974) These We Serve NACEWO

New Society (see Education for What? & Education and Work)

O'Keeffe,D. (1982) Truancy, Industry and the School Curriculum Ind. Commerc. Train., 14, 2, 54-57

Parker,S. (1975) The Sociology of Leisure: Progress and Problems Br.J. Sociol., 26, 91-101

Parry-Jones,N. & Gay,H. (1984) Disruptive Incidents: Causes and Control in the Secondary School Classroom, in: Frude,N. & Gault, H. (Eds) Disruptive Behaviour in Schools Wiley

Pearce,R.A. (1958) Streaming and a Socio-Metric Study Educ. Rev., 10, 248-251

Plowden Report (1967) (see Central Advisory Council for Education)

Poppleton,P. (1979) Research in the Classroom (or Must Teacher Talk?) Sheffield Educ. Res. Curr. Highlights, 1, 6, 9-10

Raby,L. & Walford,G. (1981) Career Related Attitudes and their Determinants for Middle- and Low - Stream Pupils in an Urban, Multi Racial Comprehensive School Res. in Ed., 25, 19-35

Ralphson,H. (1973) School Absenteeism in a Remedial Department Rem. Educ., 8, 29-32

Rankin,L. (1961) Irregular Attendance at School Educ. Rev., 13, 121-127

Raven,J. (1980) Parents, Teachers and Children: a Study of an Educational Home Visiting Scheme Hodder & Stoughton

Reid,K.C. (1981) Alienation and Persistent School Absenteeism Res. in Ed. 26, 31-40

Reid,K.C. (1982a) The Self Concept and Persistent School Absenteeism Br. J. educ. Psychol., 52, 179-187

Reid,K.C. (1982d) School Organisation and Persistent School Absenteeism: an Introduction to a Complex Problem School Organisation, 2,1, 45-52

Reid,K.C. (1983) Differences between the Perception of Persistent School Absentees towards Parents and Teachers Educ. Stud., 9, 3, 211-219

Reid,K.C. (1983) Institutional Factors and Persistent School Absenteeism Ed. Manag. Admin., 11, 17-27

Reid,K.C. (1983d?) Retrospection and Persistent School Absenteeism Ed. Res., 25, 2, 110-115

Reid,K.C. (1984) Disruptive Persistent Absentees, in: Frude,N. & Gault,H. (Eds) Disruptive Behaviour in Schools Wiley

Reid,K.C. & Kendall,L. (1982) A Review of Some Recent Research into Persistent School Absenteeism Br. J. Educ. Stud., 30, 3, 295-312

Revans,R.W. (1965) Involvement in School New Society, 6, 152

Reynolds,D. (1976) When Pupils and Teachers Refuse a Truce: The Secondary School and the Creation of Delinquency, in: Mungham,G. & Pearson,G. (Eds) Working Class Youth Culture Routledge & Kegan Paul

Reynolds,D. (1984) The School for Vandals: a Sociological Portrait of a Disaffection-Prone School, in: Frude,N. & Gault,H. (Eds) Disruptive Behaviour in Schools Wiley

Reynolds,D. & Murgatroyd,S. (1977) The Sociology of Schooling and the Absent Pupil: The School as a Factor in the Generation of Truancy, in: Carroll, H.C.M. (Ed) Absenteeism in South Wales: Studies of Pupils, their Homes and their Secondary Schools University of Swansea

Reynolds,D; Jones,D; St Leger,S. & Murgatroyd,S. (1980) School Factors and Truancy, in: Hersov,L. & Berg,I. (Eds) Out of School Wiley

Roberts,K. (1970) Leisure Longman

Robins,L.N. & Ratcliff,K.S. (1980) The Long-Term Outcome of Truancy, in: Hersov,L. & Berg,I. (Eds) Out of School Wiley

Root,J. (1977) The Importance of Peer Groups Educ. Res., 20, 1, 22-25

Roxburgh,J.M. (1971) The School Board of Glasgow 1873-1919 University of London Press

Rutter,M; Maughan,B; Mortimore,P. & Ouston,J. (1979) Fifteen Thousand Hours Open Books

Sandon,F. (1961) Irregular Attendance in a Grammar School First Form Educ. Rev., 13, 3, 224-226

Scotland,J. (1969) The History of Scottish Education 2 vols. London

Seabrook,J. (1974) Talking to Truants, in: Turner,B. (Ed) Truancy Ward Lock

Siegal,S. (1956) Non-Parametric Statistics for the Behavioural Sciences McGraw Hill

Sime,J.T. (1957) Some Aspects of Truancy in Glasgow Unpublished B.Ed Thesis University of Glasgow

Simon,B. & Taylor,W. (1981) Education in the Eighties: The Central Issues Batsford

Sinfield,A. (1981) What Unemployment Means Martin Robertson

Social Work Services Group Statistical Bulletin (see Scottish Education Department)

Steedman,J. & Fogelman,K. (1980) Secondary Schooling Concern, 36, National Children's Bureau

Stewart,M. (1950) The Leisure Activities of Grammar School Children J. educ. Psychol., 20, 11-34

Stinchcombe,A.L. (1964) Rebellion in the High School Quadrangle Books

Stott,D.H. (1966) Studies of Troublesome Children Tavistock

Sugarman,B. (1966) Social Class and Values as Related to Achievement and Conduct in School Sociol. Rev., 14, 3, 287-301

Sugarman,B. (1967) Involvement in Youth Culture, Academic Achievement and Conformity in School Br. J. Sociol., 18, 151-164

Swift,D.F. (1966) Social Class and Achievement Motivation Educ. Res., 8, 83-95

Thorndike,B.L. & Hagen,E.P. (1969) Measurement and Evaluation in Psychology and Education Wiley

Turner,B. (Ed) (1974) Truancy Ward Lock

Tyerman,M.J. (1958) A Research into Truancy Br. J. educ. Psychol., 28, 217-225

Tyerman,M.J. (1968) Truancy University of London Press

Tyerman,M.J. (1972) Absent from School Trends Ed., 26, 14-20

Tyerman,M.J. (1974) Who are the Truants?, in: Turner,B. (Ed) Truancy Ward Lock

Vernon,M.D. (1971) Human Motivation Cambridge University Press

Watson-Stewart,W. (no date) Working Party on Truancy of the City of Glasgow Children's Panel

Webb,M. (1983) Youth Training Scheme Careers Bulletin, Spring, Careers Service Branch

Werthman,C. (1971) Delinquents in Schools, in: Cosin,B.R; Esland,G.M. & Swift,D.F. (Eds) School and Society Routledge & Kegan Paul in Association with the Open University Press

White,D.J. & Peddie,M. (1978) Patterns of Absenteeism in Primary and Secondary School Scot. Educ. Rev., 10, 2, 37-43

Wilcox,J. (1976) Truancy and Pupils' Perceptions of the Climate of the School Unpublished MSc. Dissertation University of Bradford

Williams,W.M. (Ed) (1974) Occupational Choice George Allen & Unwin

Young,A.J. (1946) Truancy, a Study of Mental, Scholastic and Social Conditions in the Problem of Non-Attendance at School Br. J. educ. Psychol., 17

APPENDIX 1

Part 1 The following information is taken from the manual to the Crowley Occupational Interests Blank.

600 boys and 606 girls were drawn from various regions of the country. The mean scores of the 600 boys on the five interest areas ranged from 27.6 with standard deviation = 8.4 on the Active/Outdoor interest to 35.9 with standard deviation = 8.6 on the Practical interest. The mean scores of the 606 girls on the five interest areas ranged from 21.8 with standard deviation = 7.5 on the Active/Outdoor interest to 36.7 with standard deviation = 6.0 on the Artistic interest.

Reliability and validity studies were made on two sub groups drawn from four secondary modern schools.

Reliability. The reliability sample comprised 100 boys and 100 girls and the mean scores of the boys on the five interest areas ranged from 24.7 with standard deviation = 6.4 on the Social interest to 37.6 with standard deviation = 8.3 on the Practical interest. The mean scores of the girls ranged from 20.0 with standard deviation = 6.7 on the Active/Outdoor interest to 37.8 with standard deviation = 5.4 on the Artistic interest.

(a) Homogeneity. Reliability coefficients were computed by the split half method and for both boys and girls, were all at or above 0.91.
(b) Stability. Coefficients of stability with 40 boys and 40 girls from the fourth year ranged from 0.64 on the Social interest to 0.92 on the Practical interest for the boys, measured over three months and from 0.77 on the Office interest to 0.88 on the Artistic interest for the girls, measured over six months.

Validity (a) Construct Validity. The mean item-total score correlation on 100 boys ranged from 0.72 on the Social interest to 0.91 on the Office interest. On 100 girls, the correlations ranged from 0.70 on the Social interest to 0.89 on the Office interest.

(b) Concurrent Validity. The Blank was given to groups of young people in various occupations and the rank orders were what one would expect from the nature of the occupation. For example,

	Practical Interest Area
Engineers	84
Nurses	71
Hairdressers	65
Police Cadets	32
Office Clerks	17

(c) Predictive Validity. On a small survey of 201 pupils from the lower streams of secondary modern schools, 114 entered jobs in keeping with their interest profiles and 87 entered jobs at odds with their interest profiles. Of these 114, 101 remained in the initial type of work while 13 changed to different work but still in keeping with their interest profiles. Of the 87, 42 remained in the initial type of work while 45 changed to different work but still at odds with their interest profiles.

Part 2 The mean scores of the 600 boys in the sample already described, on the five sources of satisfaction ranged from 3.0 with standard deviation = 1.4 on Working Conditions to 5.5 with standard deviation = 1.6 on Interest. The mean scores of the 606 girls in the sample ranged from 3.1 with standard deviation = 1.7 on Financial Gain to 5.5 with standard deviation = 1.5 on Interest.

Crowley Occupational Interests Blank

CRAC

Surname (in block letters) First names

Today's date Age in years

Part I Some of the squares below have two jobs in them. Leave the name of the job you prefer and cross out the other.

	1	2	3	4	5
6	Farm worker ○ ☐	Accounts clerk ○ ☐	Nurse ○ ☐	Tool maker *or* Cook ○ ☐	Poster designer ○ ☐
7	Filing clerk ○ ☐	Waiter/waitress ○ ☐	Motor mechanic *or* Laundry packer ○ ☐	Photographer ○ ☐	Deep sea fisher *or* Pump attendant ○ ☐
8	Youth club leader ○ ☐	Plumber *or* Slipper maker ○ ☐	Interior designer *or* Florist ○ ☐	Forester *or* Kennel assistant ○ ☐	Bank clerk ○ ☐
9	Electrician *or* Toy maker ○ ☐	Window dresser ○ ☐	Traffic warden ○ ☐	Stores clerk *or* Typist ○ ☐	Shop assistant ○ ☐
10	Hairstylist ○ ☐	Sailor *or* Groom (horses) ○ ☐	Wages clerk ○ ☐	Bus conductor/ conductress *or* Teacher ○ ☐	Welder *or* Dressmaker ○ ☐

Of all the jobs I have ever heard of, the three I would most like to do are:

1 _____

2 _____

3 _____

Of all the jobs I have ever heard of, the three I would really hate to do are:

1 _____

2 _____

3 _____

(For teacher's use only)

	A/O	OFF	SOC	PRA	ART	Total
Raw score						150
Grade						—

Notes

Part 2

Statements

The starting pay is good
I like the people I work with

It's not a dull job
The working conditions are excellent

There are always lots of people around
I know exactly what I've got to do each day

I like most parts of the job itself
It's very well paid

I have good equipment to work with
I never have to work alone

There's something interesting to do every day
It's a good steady job

They pay plenty of bonuses
I work regular hours

I get along well with my workmates
The work is interesting

It's a nice clean place to work in
I'm earning a good wage now

I can stay there for years if I want to
Everything there is modern and up-to-date

I take home a good wage
I never get bored

I've got plenty of friends to talk to
They provide good meals in the restaurant

I feel very secure there
There are regular pay increases

It's an interesting job
I like the friendly atmosphere

It's centrally heated in the winter
Work proceeds at a nice steady pace

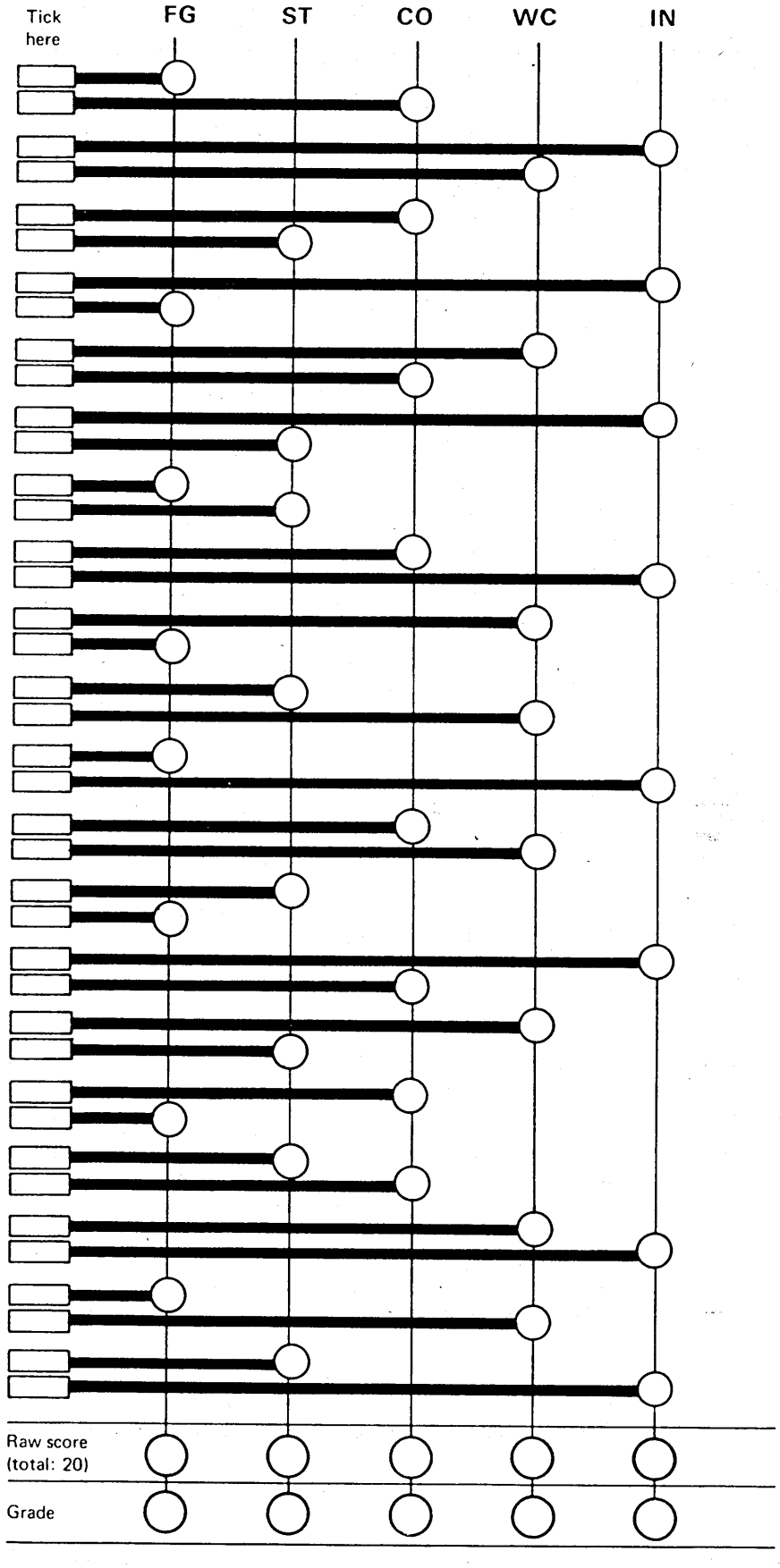
Everybody is good to me there
I'm paid good overtime rates

They don't change my duties too much
There's always someone around to talk to

I work in very pleasant surroundings
It's the type of work I like

I earn more than in my last job
There's no dust, dirt or noise where I work

There are never any problems
It's the sort of work I enjoy



APPENDIX 2

The following information is taken from the manual for School Climate Index (NSI) by D.S.Finlayson (1970).

Teacher Behaviour Scales

Concern refers to behaviour indicative of the degree to which pupils perceive their teachers to be sensitive to the individual needs of pupils. Both task and social/emotional needs are included.

Social Control refers to behaviour which indicates the degree to which pupils perceive their teachers to impose their expectations on pupils and to be required to exercise power in an attempt to secure compliance.

Pupil Behaviour Scales

Emotional Tone refers to behaviour which indicates the degree to which pupils perceive their peers deriving social and emotional satisfaction from participation in school activities.

Task Orientation refers to behaviour which indicates the degree to which the pupils perceive their peers to have accepted the tasks set them by the school and to be applying themselves to those tasks.

Normative data was obtained from a sample of 978 pupils of both sexes drawn from a range of comprehensive schools. The mean score on the four scales ranged from 16.09 on Emotional Tone with standard deviation = 4.89 to 21.91 on Concern with standard deviation = 4.87. For each of the four scales, a one way analysis of variance showed the F ratio ranging from 7.39 on Emotional Tone (level of significance 0.01) to 10.71 on Task Orientation (level of significance 0.01).

Reliability. The reliability sample comprised 100 boys and 100 girls and the mean scores of the boys on the five sources of satisfaction ranged from 3.7 with standard deviation = 1.5 on Companionship to 5.2 with standard deviation = 1.4 on Interest. The mean scores of the girls ranged from 2.9 with standard deviation = 1.7 on Financial Gain to 5.3 with standard deviation = 1.4 on Interest.

(a) Homogeneity. Reliability coefficients range from 0.62 to 0.73

(b) Stability. Coefficients of stability range from 0.73 to 0.92

Validity. Construct Validity. The mean item total score correlations range from 0.78 on Stability to 0.85 on Financial Gain.

SCHOOL CLIMATE INDEX

(NSI)

by Douglas S. Finlayson

University of Liverpool

Published by NFER
The Mere,
Upton Park,
Slough

There are many sides to a school, and what we have done is to collect a number of statements about some of the things that go on in schools. Some will apply to this school, and some not. After reading each of the statements carefully, we would like you to say to what extent you think that each of the statements is true for your school. In deciding this, take no account of whether this is good or bad. All we would like to know is whether the statement applies to this school, or whether it doesn't. There are no right or wrong answers.

So that you can give your opinion about each statement, we have supplied a separate answer sheet, which has spaces which correspond with all the statements in your booklet. The marks at the right hand side of the pages in your booklet correspond to lines on your answer sheet. If you slip your answer sheet under page 1 and fit the pages so that the lines correspond at the top, you will find that you have opposite each statement, five boxes. Each of these corresponds to letters at the top of each of the columns. You have to put a tick in the box that best describes your agreement or disagreement with each statement as a description of your school.

If you strongly agree with the statement as a description of what goes on in your school, put a tick in the box marked 'SA'.

If you agree with the statement as a description of what goes on in your school, put a tick in the box marked 'A'.

If you are uncertain whether the statement is a description of what goes on in your school, put a tick in the box marked 'U'.

If you disagree with the statement as a description of what goes on in your school put a tick in the box marked 'D'.

If you strongly disagree with the statement as a description of what goes on in your school, put a tick in the box marked 'SD'.

Make certain you put a tick against each statement, but do not put more than one tick in each set of five boxes.

After you have done the 17 statements on page 1 move your answer sheet in, so that the boxes match the next set of lines and statements. Please write nothing on the booklets themselves as we want to use them with other pupils in other schools. All your answers should be on your answer sheet.

As we want you to give us your real opinions about the school, what you say will not be seen by any of the teachers in the school, and we shall treat your papers as highly confidential and private.

1. Teachers here behave as though people are more important than rules. ____

2. Teachers go out of their way to understand pupils here. ____

3. Pupils work here only because they have to. ____

4. There are too many rules to stop you having fun at breaks. ____

5. We are sorry when a teacher leaves here. ____

6. There is no chance of getting a school rule here changed, even if most of the pupils disagree with it. ____

7. Everyone has a lot of fun at this school. ____

8. Teachers try to make you feel grown up. ____

9. Teachers shout too much. ____

10. Teachers don't let us do things here unless they are present. ____

11. Pupils feel very satisfied with this school. ____

12. It is always the same people who are chosen to do the interesting things. ____

13. Teachers treat questions that pupils ask them in class as though the pupils were criticising them personally. ____

14. Pupils are proud to wear the school uniform. ____

15. Teachers here are genuinely concerned about pupils' feelings. ____

16. Pupils feel they are wasting their time here. ____

17. Everyone tries to make you feel at home here. ____

18. Experiments in the science labs never seem to come out right.

19. Teachers give you too little encouragement here.

20. Pupils dislike being here.

21. Pupils are made to take the blame for things whether they have done them or not.

22. Teachers here go out of their way to help you.

23. Having a good time comes first with pupils here.

24. If pupils have difficulties with their work the teachers take time to help them.

25. Teachers willingly give permission for a pupil to go into a classroom or workshop to work in his/her spare time.

26. Everyone prefers the easy teachers and would like to avoid the ones who make you work.

27. Pupils rip pages out and scribble on their school text books.

28. Teachers never explain to you why they ask you to do things.

29. Pupils think a lot of this school.

30. Teachers are always making you line up for everything here.

31. A lot of time is wasted in our classes.

32. Teachers are really interested in all we do here.

33. Pupils here go through the motions of working, but they really couldn't care less.

34. Teachers soon lose their tempers here.

SCHOOL CLIMATE INDEX

(NS1)

ANSWER SHEET

School .....

Class .....

Name .....

Published by NFER,
The Mere,
Upton Park
Slough.

Page 1

	SA	A	U	D	SD
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					
7					
8					
9					

Page 2

	SA	A	U	D	SD
18					
19					
20					
21					
22					
23					
24					
25					
26					

	SA	A	U	D	SD
10					
11					
12					
13					
14					
15					
16					
17					

	SA	A	U	D	SD
27					
28					
29					
30					
31					
32					
33					
34					

APPENDIX 3

The specially produced local activities questionnaire

Reliability coefficients were computed using the split half method (Spearman-Brown formula - see Guilford and Fruchter 1973, pp 414-416). For all pupils the estimated reliability of the full length questionnaire was 0.24 (actual correlation between the two halves was 0.139).

For the girls the estimated reliability of the full length questionnaire was 0.18 (actual correlation between the two halves was 0.10).

For the boys the estimated reliability of the full length questionnaire was 0.38 (actual correlation between the two halves was 0.23).

Since the questionnaire was changed slightly over the two tests (due to interviewing pupils not involved in the study and taking their views into account) these correlations refer to the second test only. The slight difference between the two questionnaires made a test-retest procedure unreliable. Also maturational effects, particularly when the time interval was quite long, may have contributed greatly to error variance (Guilford and Fruchter 1973).

When examining the reported coefficients of reliability it should be borne in mind that these values depend on the correlation between the two halves which may not be directly applicable to the full length test (Thorndike and Hagen 1969). For this to be so, the two halves should be "experimentally independent and equivalent" (Thorndike and Hagen 1969) and contain an adequate representation of each type of item (Lewis 1967). Lewis explains the difficulty:

> "A test can be split into halves - even equivalent halves - in a number of ways, each yielding a different value for (the correlation). Any one split-half coefficient is to this extent arbitrary."
> (p 189)

By following Guilford and Fruchter's suggestion of using odd numbered items in one half test and all the even numbered items in the other, we may have obtained only <u>one</u> value for the coefficient out of a <u>number</u> of possibilities.

It was felt therefore, that although the <u>estimated</u> reliability of the questionnaire seems <u>low</u> the above reasoning still renders it acceptable for use.

	Almost every day	Once or twice a week	Once or twice a month	Less than once a month	Hardly ever or never do this
1 Going out with friends					
2 Playing outdoor games like football, tennis, hockey, golf, etc.					
3 Playing indoor games like darts, cards, pool, snooker etc.					
4 Going to a youth club or cafe					
5 Playing a musical instrument or fishing					
6 Staying at home and watching TV or listening to records etc.					
7 Going to a disco					
8 Helping mum and dad with housework, baby-sitting, garden, car etc.					
9 Cycling or horse-riding or taking dog for walk					
10 Staying at home and doing homework or reading					
11 Doing a paid job outside school hours					
12 Modelmaking, do it yourself hobbies, sewing or knitting					

3. For all pupils, on the morning of the third day of unexplained absence they complete an absence slip and add comments. If the pupil's previous absence notes are suspect they fill in an attendance card. If the pupil has more than 15% absence they complete an attendance card even if the pupil's absences appear genuine.

They hand all absence notes and attendance cards to the appropriate Guidance Principal as soon as possible after registration and note in their register these pupils for whom an attendance card has been made out.

GUIDANCE PRINCIPAL

They check:

1. Whether the absence slip has been adequately completed.
2. Whether the attendance card and absence notes are attached if required.
3. Whether the pupil is present for he may have come in late.
4. Whether a message has been received at the Office regarding the absence.

They make comments on the attendance of any siblings, and if they find that one (or more) of a family is always absent, they obtain completed attendance cards for the whole family. All materials are then handed to the Assistant Head Teacher Guidance before 11.00 a.m.

ASSISTANT HEAD TEACHER GUIDANCE

He arranges to have the materials delivered to the Clerk to the School Council unless the Clerk is to call at the school that day. Discussions are held with the Clerk on the various cases and if detailed information is neccessary the appropriate Guidance Principal joins/

joins the discussion. A register is kept of all the pupils referred for patterns of absence or who are known truants. In this register are recorded the Clerk's comments, dates of warning letters 1 and 2, sub-committee appearances and prosecutions.

A check is made on the cases under review by the sub-committee and reference is made to the Clerk if neccessary. All materials are handed back to the Guidance Principal who in turn keeps his own records before handing all materials back to the register teacher.

APPENDIX 5

Total number of half days of absence in both sessions.

Table 45 Comparison of number of absences between poor attenders and good attenders over the periods, 25. August.1977 to 7.April.1978 and 21.August. 1978 to 27.April.1979 and the possible number of attendances.

25.August.1977 - 7.April.1978 Absences(½ day sessions) out of 276 possible attendances					21.August.1978 - 27.April.1979 Absences(½ day sessions) out of 300 possible attendances				
Stage S2 Common Course Classes		P.A.		G.A.	Stage S3 Mixed Cert. & Non-cert. Classes		P.A.		G.A.
		(N)	(%)	(N) (%)			(N)	(%)	(N) (%)
Boys	Pair 1	90	33	17 6	Boys	Pair 1	-	-	- -
	Pair 2	124	45	14 5		Pair 2	-	-	- -
	Pair 3	71	25	4 1		Pair 3	175	58	23 8
	Pair 4	73	26	5 2		Pair 4	79	26	21 7
	Pair 5	73	26	8 3		Pair 5	52	17	33 11
	Pair 6	58	21	17 6		Pair 6	45	15	4 1
	Pair 7	56	20	12 4		Pair 7	86	29	4 1
	Pair 8	56	20	17 6		Pair 8	43	14	19 6
Girls	Pair 1	57	20	2 0.7	Girls	Pair 1	44	15	2 0.7
	Pair 2	58	21	2 0.7		Pair 2	57	19	3 1
	Pair 3	81	29	11 4		Pair 3	81	27	13 4
	Pair 4	158	57	12 4		Pair 4	140	47	16 5
	Pair 5	114	41	11 4		Pair 5	148	49	60 20
	Pair 6	64	23	28 10		Pair 6	60	20	21 7
	Pair 7	74	27	13 5		Pair 7	58	19	6 2
	Pair 8	95	34	25 9		Pair 8	57	19	17 6

Table 45 Continued.

25.August.1977 - 7.April.1978 Absences(½ day sessions)out of 276 possible attendances					21.August.1978 - 27.April.1979 Absences(½ day sessions)out of 300 possible attendances				
Stage S2 Remedial Class		P.A.		G.A.	Stage S3 Mixed Cert. & Non-cert. Classes		P.A.		G.A.
		(N)	(%)	(N) (%)			(N)	(%)	(N) (%)
Boys	Pair 9	97	35	17 6	Boys	Pair 9	116	39	6 2
	Pair 10	59	21	10 4		Pair 10	77	26	12 4
Girls	Pair 9	72	26	19 7	Girls	Pair 9	135	45	15 5
	Pair 10	98	36	52 19		Pair 10	73	24	41 14
Stage S3 Cert. Classes					Stage S4 Cert. Classes.				
Boys	Pair 11	72	26	6 2	Boys	Pair 11	19	6	12 4
	Pair 12	58	21	5 2		Pair 12	68	23	15 5
	Pair 13	105	38	5 2		Pair 13	65	22	19 6
Girls	Pair 11	57	21	9 3	Girls	Pair 11	51	17	19 6
	Pair 12	67	25	9 3		Pair 12	49	16	13 4
	Pair 13	86	31	7 3		Pair 13	143	48	10 3
	Pair 14	100	36	13 5		Pair 14	118	39	24 8
	Pair 15	68	25	2 0.7		Pair 15	93	31	0 0
	Pair 16	66	24	19 7		Pair 16	73	24	27 9
	Pair 17	92	33	19 7		Pair 17	-	-	- -
Stage S3 Non-cert Classes					Stage S4 Non-cert Classes				
Boys	Pair 14	165	60	1 0.3	Boys	Pair 14	-	-	- -
	Pair 15	143	52	12 4		Pair 15	-	-	- -
	Pair 16	57	21	31 11		Pair 16	109	36	61 20

Table 45 Continued.

25.August.1977 - 7.April.1978 Absences($\frac{1}{2}$ day sessions)out of 276 possible attendances					21.August.1978 - 27.April.1979 Absences($\frac{1}{2}$ day sessions)out of 300 possible attendances				
Stage S3 Non-cert Classes		P.A.		G.A.	Stage S4 Non-cert Classes		P.A.		G.A.	
		(N)	(%)	(N) (%)			(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)
Boys	Pair 17	69	25	26 9	Boys	Pair 17	93	31	43	14
	Pair 18	145	53	10 4		Pair 18	235	78	21	7
	Pair 19	57	21	1 0.3		Pair 19	35	12	26	9
	Pair 20	73	26	13 5		Pair 20	103	34	84	28
Girls	Pair 18	67	24	17 6	Girls	Pair 18	63	21	36	12
	Pair 19	121	44	0 0		Pair 19	-	-	-	-
	Pair 20	71	26	20 7		Pair 20	104	35	97	32
	Pair 21	175	63	4 1		Pair 21	227	76	13	4
	Pair 22	78	28	19 7		Pair 22	-	-	-	-
	Pair 23	60	22	24 9		Pair 23	70	23	39	13
	Pair 24	113	41	25 9		Pair 24	75	25	34	11
	Pair 25	100	36	5 2		Pair 25	111	37	22	7
	Pair 26	62	22	32 12		Pair 26	83	28	40	13

It should be noted that most percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole number for clarity.

Table 46 Frequency of occurence of some Social Activities by poor attenders and good attenders.

Boys	Going out with friends		Playing indoor games		Going to a youth club or cafe		Going to a disco	
	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.
Almost every day	12	12	4	2	2	1	0	1
Once or twice a week	3	4	6	11	8	11	6	2
Once or twice a month	1	0	2	2	1	2	1	4
Less than once a month	0	0	1	1	0	1	2	0
Hardly ever or never do this	0	0	3	0	5	1	7	9
Totals	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
Girls	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.
Almost every day	18	11	1	2	2	1	0	0
Once or twice a week	3	11	7	9	13	13	11	3
Once or twice a month	1	0	5	3	2	2	5	10
Less than once a month	0	1	4	5	2	0	0	5
Hardly ever or never do this	1	0	6	4	4	7	7	5
Totals	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23

Table 47(a) Frequency of some Physical Activities by poor attenders and good attenders.

(Initial Test.)

Boys	Playing outdoor games		Cycling or horse riding	
	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.
Almost every day	5	8	7	5
Once or twice a week	4	4	2	6
Once or twice a month	3	3	4	1
Less than once a month	1	1	0	1
Hardly ever or never do this	3	0	3	3
Totals	16	16	16	16
Girls	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.
Almost every day	0	2	2	8
Once or twice a week	8	8	11	2
Once or twice a month	6	3	2	8
Less than once a month	3	4	1	1
Hardly ever or never do this	6	6	7	4
Totals	23	23	23	23

Table 47(b) Frequency of occurence of some Physical Activities by poor attenders and good attenders.

(Second Test)

Boys	Swimming		Cycling alone or with a group of friends		Playing outdoor games like football cricket, etc.	
	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.
Almost every day	3	1	9	4	10	13
Once or twice a week	6	9	3	10	5	5
Once or twice a month	6	6	2	2	1	0
Less than once a month	1	4	1	0	2	0
Hardly ever or never do this	4	0	5	4	2	2
Totals	20	20	20	20	20	20
Girls	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.
Almost every day	2	1	5	2	4	6
Once or twice a week	10	6	2	7	9	9
Once or twice a month	6	9	4	4	3	1
Less than once a month	1	4	1	4	4	2
Hardly ever or never do this	7	6	14	9	6	8
Totals	26	26	26	26	26	26

Table 48(a) Frequency of occurence of some Routine Activities by poor attenders and good attenders.

(Initial Test.)

Boys	Helping Mum and Dad with housework etc.		Doing a paid job outside school hours	
	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.
Almost every day	4	4	6	3
Once or twice a week	5	3	3	4
Once or twice a month	0	2	1	1
Less than twice a month	0	2	1	1
Hardly ever or never do this	4	4	5	7
Totals	16	16	16	16
Girls	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.
Almost every day	10	12	5	5
Once or twice a week	7	6	5	9
Once or twice a month	4	4	0	0
Less than once a month	2	1	1	1
Hardly ever or never do this	0	0	12	8
Totals	23	23	23	23

Table 48(b) Frequency of occurence of some Routine Activities by poor attenders and good attenders. (Second Test).

Boys	Cooking, helping with housework and doing jobs around the house		Doing a paid job outside school hours	
	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.
Almost every day	9	9	2	2
Once or twice a week	5	6	2	3
Once or twice a month	1	1	3	0
Less than once a month	1	1	0	0
Hardly ever or never do this	4	3	13	15
Totals	20	20	20	20
Girls	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.
Almost every day	17	19	1	2
Once or twice a week	7	2	4	4
Once or twice a month	1	4	0	1
Less than once a month	0	1	2	0
Hardly ever or never do this	1	0	19	19
Totals	26	26	26	26

Routine Activities

Table 49 Analysis of responses from matched pairs showing differences in the amount of time spent on the activity.

Initial Test.					
	Boys			Girls	
Activity	X	N	P-Level (1-tail)	X	N	P-Level (1-tail)
Helping with housework etc.	6	14	0.395	6	13	0.5
Doing a paid job	0	8	0.980	6	13	0.5
Second Test						
Helping mum and dad with housework	3	9	0.254	5	14	0.212
Doing a paid job	4	12	0.194	5	12	0.387

Table 50 Numbers of poor attenders and good attenders spending time (more often/less often) on do-it-yourself hobbies, sewing etc. by the second test.

Second Test					
	P.A.		G.A.		
	More often	Less often	More often	Less often	About the same
Boys	2	6	5	4	15
Girls	10	5	4	9	17
Boys/Girls	12	11	9	13	33

Chi-square = 0 Degrees of freedom = 1

Probability < 0.48 (1 - tail)

Table 51 Analysis of responses from matched pairs showing differences in the amount of time spent on the activity

Initial test	Boys			Girls		
Activity	X	N	P-Level (1 tail)	X	N	P-Level (1 tail)
Listening to records	7	15	0.5	5	12	0.387
Second test						
Staying at home and watching T.V. etc.	0	10	0.98	6	13	0.5

Table 52(a) Frequency of occurence of a Passive Activity by poor attenders and good attenders. (Initial Test).

Boys	Listening to records or tapes	
	P.A.	G.A.
Almost every day	7	9
Once or twice a week	7	5
Once or twice a month	1	2
Less than once a month	2	2
Hardly ever or never do this	3	2
Totals	20	20
Girls	P.A.	G.A.
Almost every day	13	13
Once or twice a week	12	8
Once or twice a month	0	2
Less than once a month	0	1
Hardly ever or never do this	1	2
Totals	26	26

Table 52 (b) Frequency of occurence of some Passive Activities by poor attenders and good attenders. (Second Test).

Boys	Staying at home and watching T.V. etc.	
	P.A.	G.A.
Almost every day	10	8
Once or twice a week	3	5
Once or twice a month	2	1
Less than once a month	0	1
Hardly ever or never do this	1	1
Totals	16	16
Girls	P.A.	G.A.
Almost every day	12	5
Once or twice a week	10	5
Once or twice a month	0	1
Less than once a month	0	1
Hardly ever or never do this	1	1
Totals	23	23

Intellectual Activities.

Table 53 Analysis of responses from matched pairs showing differences in amount of time spent on the activity.

Initial Test.	Boys			Girls		
Activity	X	N	P - Level (1-tail)	X	N	P - Level (1-tail)
Reading a book	6	13	0.5	10	21	0.5
Going to a library	2	7	0.227	5	14	0.212
Reading comics etc.	6	13	0.5	4	15	0,059
Second Test.						
Staying at home and doing homework etc.	2	7	0.227	6	14	0.359

Table 54(a) Frequency of occurence of some Intellectual Activities by poor attenders and good attenders. Initial Test.

Boys	Reading a book		Going to a library		Reading comics and magazines	
	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.
Almost every day	4	1	0	0	6	6
Once or twice a week	3	4	0	1	8	10
Once or twice a month	1	5	2	1	1	2
Less than once a month	2	0	3	0	0	1
Hardly ever or never do this	10	10	15	18	5	1
Totals	20	20	20	20	20	20
Girls	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.	P.A.	G.A.
Almost every day	5	6	0	0	13	7
Once or twice a week	9	8	2	7	10	15
Once or twice a month	5	2	2	3	1	1
Less than once a month	2	3	3	0	0	0
Hardly ever or never do this	5	7	19	16	2	3
Totals	26	26	26	26	26	26

Table 54(b) Frequency of occurence of some Intellectual Activities by poor attenders and good attenders. Second Test.

Boys	Staying at home and doing homework or reading etc.	
	P.A.	G.A.
Almost every day	1	1
Once or twice a week	4	4
Once or twice a month	1	2
Less than once a month	0	3
Hardly ever or never do this	10	6
Totals	16	16
Girls	P.A.	G.A.
Almost every day	3	4
Once or twice a week	5	10
Once or twice a month	4	1
Less than once a month	4	0
Hardly ever or never do this	7	8
Totals	23	23